CANADIAN THESES ON MICROFICHE

I.S.B.N.

THESES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE

National Library of Canada
Collections Development Branch

Canadian Theses on
Microfiche Service

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
Direction du développement des collections

Service des thèses canadiennes
sur microfiche

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us a poor photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de mauvaise qualité.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

NL-339 (r. 82/08)

Canada

0-315-08927-X

National Library of Canada | Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Canadian Theses Division | Division des thèses canadiennes

38 Ottawa, Canada K1A 0N4

56844

PERMISSION TO MICROFILM — AUTORISATION DE MICROFILMER

• Please print or type — Écrire en lettres moulées ou dactylographier

Full Name of Author — Nom complet de l'auteur

Lucille M. Mandin

Date of Birth — Date de naissance	Country of Birth — Lieu de naissance
April 2, 1948	CANADA

Permanent Address — Résidence fixe

22 Beacon Crescent
St. Albert, Alberta
T8N 0A3

Title of Thesis — Titre de la thèse

The impact of a "Read-Aloud Stories" Program on the Vocabulary and Reading Ability of Grade 3 French Immersion Pupils.

University — Université

University of Alberta

Degree for which thesis was presented — Grade pour lequel cette thèse fut présentée

M.Ed

Year this degree conferred — Année d'obtention de ce grade	Name of Supervisor — Nom du directeur de thèse
1982	Dr. M. Jenkinson

Permission is hereby granted to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

L'autorisation est, par la présente, accordée à la BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

L'auteur se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans l'autorisation écrite de l'auteur.

Date	Signature
April 23, 1982	Lucille Mandin

NL-91 (4/77)

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE IMPACT OF A "READ-ALOUD STORIES" PROGRAM ON THE VOCABULARY AND THE READING ABILITY OF GRADE 3 FRENCH IMMERSION PUPILS

by

LUCILLE M. MANDIN

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

SPRING, 1982

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR Lucille M. Mandin

TITLE OF THESIS The Impact of a "Read-Aloud Stories" Program on the Vocabulary and the Reading Ability of Grade 3 French Immersion Pupils

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED Master of Education

YEAR THIS DEGREE GRANTED 1982

Permission is hereby granted to THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA LIBRARY to reproduce single copies of this thesis and to lend or sell such copies for private, scholarly or scientific research purposes only.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

(Signed) Lucille M. Mandin

PERMANENT ADDRESS:

22 Beacon Crescent
St. Albert, Alberta
T8N 0A3

Date April 6 1982

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled The Impact of a "Read-Aloud Stories" Program on the Vocabulary and the Reading Ability of Grade 3 French Immersion Pupils submitted by Lucille M. Mandin in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

Marion D. Jackson
Supervisor

Douglas V. Parker

Date April 6, 1982

To my children

Christian and

Candice

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was two fold:

1. to examine the impact of the 20-week program in which stories are read by their teacher to Grade 3 students in French immersion programs on their receptive and productive vocabulary as well as on their reading achievement.

2. to research the merits of two different methodologies for presenting a story: the "lap-method" in which incidental vocabulary development takes place or introducing key words in contextual situations prior to reading stories aloud, thus promoting direct vocabulary learning.

The sample of 52 Grade 3 students was chosen from French immersion classes of three Alberta urban school boards. They were selected from children of equivalent linguistic backgrounds (unilingual anglophone) in their fourth year of uninterrupted French immersion schooling (early total immersion).

Three tests, the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, a Picture Description Test and a silent reading cloze test were utilized by the investigator to determine the impact on their receptive and productive vocabulary as well as on their reading ability. The subjects were pre-tested with the instruments mentioned previously to measure their linguistic competence and their reading skills. They were then exposed to a special 20-week literature program whereby the teachers read stories pre-selected by the investigator, to their students daily for the duration of 10 minutes. The subjects were then post-tested with the same instruments.

All the subjects continued in the habitual Grade 3 French immersion program. However there were two different treatments given to the subjects of the experimental groups: one group was exposed to the pre-selected stories, which were preceded by a presentation of the key words before the reading, while the other group received the "read-aloud stories" program without the introduction of key words.

Prior to the experiment, an oral cloze test determined the high language users and the low language users. The group means of the difference of the scores and the standard deviations were calculated for each test for the high language users and low language users. These were used for an analysis of variance to determine whether a significant difference would be found between the experimental groups and the control group.

In the light of results obtained from the data, the following conclusions were reached:

1. a "read-aloud stories" program had a beneficial effect on the receptive vocabulary and the reading ability of Grade 3 French early total immersion students. This program did not seem to affect the productive vocabulary;

2. introducing key words in contextual situations to students prior to reading a story, caused a measurable gain only in the reading ability of the subjects. This treatment did not seem to affect their receptive and productive vocabulary;

3. the "read-aloud stories" program did not affect low language users and high language users differently. Both were affected in the same manner.

RESUME

Nous savons qu'il est indispensable de posséder un vocabulaire assez riche et un nombre de structures syntaxiques assez élèvé pour arriver à exprimer d'une façon claire et précise nos pensées et nos connaissances.

Dans l'acquisition de la langue maternelle d'un enfant, l'environnement linguistique de cette langue, y inclus les histoires racontées ou lues aux enfants ainsi que les médias tels que la radio ou la télévision, fournissent la structure et le contenu de la langue qu'ils liront plus tard. L'enfant apprenant à lire dans une langue autre que dans sa langue maternelle, ne bénéficie pas nécessairement de ces modèles. Le contact avec la langue cible des enfants inscrits dans les programmes d'immersion française est presque exclusivement limité à leurs enseignants et à leurs camarades de classes. Donc, il est opportun de leur présenter autant de modèles langagiers possibles pendant le processus de l'acquisition de la langue cible.

Nous avons des preuves d'après les recherches faites dans l'étude de l'acquisition de la langue maternelle que l'action directe de l'enseignant par une lecture à haute voix peut avoir une influence sur le développement du vocabulaire et sur l'apprentissage de la lecture.

Cette étude a donc deux buts:

1. d'examiner l'impact d'un programme de lecture à haute voix d'une durée de vingt semaines sur le vocabulaire réceptif et productif et sur l'apprentissage de la lecture des élèves de la

3e année en immersion française.

2. d'étudier les mérites de deux méthodologies différentes pour présenter une histoire:

a. la lecture à haute voix sans la présentation des mots-clés avant la lecture de l'histoire.

b. la lecture à haute voix avec la présentation des mots-clés avant la lecture de l'histoire.

La population de cette étude est composée de 52 élèves en 3e année choisis de six classes d'immersion française de trois commissions scolaires Albertaines urbaines. Les sujets furent sélectionnés parmi les élèves d'origine anglophone unilingue dans leur quatrième année d'immersion française totale précoce.

Tous les sujets de l'étude furent exposés au programme habituel de la 3e année d'immersion française. Toutefois, deux traitements différents ont été présentés aux groupes expérimentaux: un groupe (T_1) a reçu la lecture d'une histoire selectionnée avec la présentation de mots-clés avant la lecture, tandis que l'autre groupe (T_2) fut exposé à la lecture à haute voix sans la présention des mots-clés au préalable. Le groupe témoin continua seulement leur programme habituel. L'étude touchait donc six classes: quatre classes dont deux pour chaque groupe expérimental et deux classes pour le groupe témoin.

L'impact de la lecture à haute voix sur leur vocabulaire (réceptif et productif) et sur leur capacité de lire fut déterminé par trois instruments: le test Peabody Picture Vocabulary (version française, forme A), des épreuves de textes mutilés (technique "Cloze")

et un test Picture Description. Ces derniers ont été administrés par le chercheur avant et après l'expérimentation.

Avant l'expérimentation, une épreuve de textes mutilés (orale) fut utilisée pour déterminer le niveau de compétence linguistique des sujets. Suite à l'expérimentation, les résultats des trois tests furent analysés. La moyenne des différences des résultats et l'écart type furent calculés pour chaque épreuve pour les plus forts et pour les plus faibles. L'analyse de variance fut ensuite utilisée pour déterminer s'il y avait une différence significative entre les résultats obtenus entre les deux groupes expérimentaux (T_1 et T_2) et le groupe témoin (C) et entre les deux groupes expérimentaux.

A la lumière des résultats obtenus des données et tenant compte des limites de cette étude, les conclusions suivantes ont été présentées:

1. la lecture à haute voix faite par l'enseignant, a une influence bénéfique sur le vocabulaire réceptif et sur l'apprentissage de la lecture des élèves de la 3^{e} année d'immersion française totale et précoce. Ce programme de littérature ne semble pas avoir affecté leur vocabulaire productif.

2. la présentation de mots-clés avant la lecture des histoires a affecté seulement la capacité de lire des sujets. Ce traitement ne semble pas avoir affecté le développement de leur vocabulaire receptif et productif.

3. la lecture à haute voix par l'enseignant n'a pas affecté les forts autrement que les faibles.

Malgré les résultats de cette étude, plusieurs implications

ressortent de cette expérimentation. Il est évident que les enseignants des programmes d'immersion aurait avantage à mettre sur pied des séances de lecture à haute voix. Afin d'obtenir un résultat favorable les enseignants devraient se familiariser avec la littérature enfantine appropriée à l'âge et aux stades de développement de la langue cible. Le choix des histoires à lire à haute voix pour les élèves d'une 3^{e} année, mérite une réflexion. Afin de motiver les élèves à lire et de renforcir leur langue, il est important de choisir des livres auxquels les enfants peuvent s'identifier et comprendre. Le support visuel fut identifié comme indispensable à la clarification du sens des histoires lues. Toutefois, la performance dynamique et enthousiaste du lecteur est cruciale à la réussite d'un projet de lecture à haute voix.

Il est intéressant de noter que dans cette étude, le vocabulaire de production ne semble pas avoir été affecté par la lecture à haute voix faite par les enseignants. Un traitement additionnel, celui de discuter et/ou synthétiser les histoires à la suite de la lecture, pourrait assister l'amélioration de leur vocabulaire productif.

En conclusion, les résultats obtenus des instruments choisis pour cette étude, nous poussent à questionner la validité de ceux-ci. Etant donné la situation linguistique particulière des sujets, il est apparent que les instruments utilisés dans des études semblables pourraient être raffinés davantage afin de les normaliser pour nos buts de recherches. Le test Peabody Picture Vocabulary est particulièrement douteux dans cette étude.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to express sincere appreciation to Dr. M. Jenkinson whose knowledgeable and patient supervision throughout all phases of this investigation, made this study a pleasurable experience.

Thanks are also extended to Dr. D. V. Parker and Dr. S. Carey for their valuable suggestions and interest.

The advice and assistance of Dr. T. Maguire in the statistical analysis of this study were appreciated.

In such a study, numerous people play a role in the outcome. My sincere thanks go to the participating teachers and children without whom this investigation would not have been possible.

The constant encouragement and loving support of my husband, Emile and the educational ideals we share for our children, Christian and Candice, were motivating forces to pursue this study. To them, I offer my heartfelt gratitude.

I also wish to thank my parents, who throughout my life, provided models of perseverance and love.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter		Page
I.	INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	1
	Statement of the Problem	2
	General Background of the Study	3
	Definition of Terms	4
	Hypotheses	6
	The Design of the Study	7
	Procedure	7
	Analysis of Data	8
	Significance of the Study	8
	Overview of Study	9
II.	REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	10
	Introduction	10
	The Nature of Language Learning	10
	Theories of First Language Acquisition	12
	Second Language Acquisition	12
	Development Features of the Language Acquisition Process for the Bilingual Child	15
	The Relationship of Language Learning to Reading	16
	The Growth of Word Meaning	20
	The Use of Literature to Facilitate Vocabulary Development	21
	Summary	26
III.	THE RESEARCH DESIGN	27
	Introduction	27

Chapter

Page

The Selection of the Sample 27

The Sample 28

The Treatments 29

Selection of Teachers 31

Teacher Preparation 32

Selection of Stories 32

Preparation of Stories 33

Test Instruments 34

Cloze Tests 35

The Oral Cloze Test 37

The Silent Reading Cloze Test 37

The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test 38

The Picture Description Test 40

Data Collection 41

Data Analysis 41

IV. FINDINGS—TEST RESULTS 43

The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test 46

Silent Reading Cloze Test 48

The Picture Description Test 49

Summary 58

V. FINDINGS—TEACHER REPORTS AND CHILDREN'S REACTIONS 60

Teachers' Reports 60

Individual Differences Amongst the Children 67

Case Studies 68

Case 1: Subject S 68

Chapter

Page

Case 2: Subject K 69

Case 3: Subject D 69

Case 4: Subject M and Subject P 74

VI. SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH 77

Summary 77

The Design 77

Conclusions 78

Implications 79

Suggestions for Further Research 81

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY 83

APPENDICES 91

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
II-1	Research on Reading Aloud to Children	24
III-1	Chronology of Research	42
IV-1	Results Obtained by Each Group for the Cloze (Oral) Test	45
IV-2	Analysis of Variance of the Experimental Groups and the Control Group on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test	46
IV-3	Treatment Means for the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test for Both Experimental Groups and the Control Group	47
IV-4	Analysis of Variance of the Experimental Groups and the Control Group on the Silent Reading Cloze Test	48
IV-5	Treatment Means for the Silent Reading Cloze Test for Both Experimental Groups and the Control Group	48
IV-6	Analysis of Variance of the Experimental Groups and the Control Group on the Sub-tests of the Picture Description Test	50
IV-7	Summary of the Results Obtained	52
IV-8	The Unadjusted Means of the Pre-Tests Obtained by Each Group for the Silent Reading Cloze Test	57
V-1	Comparison of the Test Results of Subject M and Subject P	75

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

An adequate vocabulary and a sufficient number of syntactic structures are essential to permit a clear and precise expression of our thoughts and our knowledge. The concepts which an individual develops are primarily manifested in his vocabulary. Therefore, vocabulary training is an important part of any educational program since it is related to concepts developed and their expression. Parallel to their conceptual development, children should accumulate a vocabulary which helps them express correctly their ideas and their knowledge (Wann, Darn, & Liddle, 1973).

According to Vygotsky (1962) and Church (1962) language and thought develop in an interdependent relationship. Both Vygotsky and Church describe the mechanics by which language can facilitate learning and relate the process of language learning to environmental exposure. Vygotsky speaks of an assimilation of the structure and the syntax of language presented by the model before the child himself can speak. According to Church, the role of language is to organize the reality of one's world into an ever expanding categorization of the environment of the child. Ruddell (1969) also claims a significant relationship exists between the performance of a child and the language of his environment, including the availability of language models and the opportunity to interact with the language. These conceptions of how language is learned explain the initial causes for

the deficiency in children learning a foreign language. The causes seem rooted in the fact that the family and the community environment cannot often offer these models of language. The model of oral language which is later reflected and extended in the language of the books in which they learn to read at school, is not likely to be available to children of second language programs in their natural environment.

Statement of the Problem

It is believed that the spoken vocabulary of children is far more limited than that found in books which are read to them (Brown, 1973). It is also known that children understand more language than they are able to produce; that is, their comprehension surpasses their production. Since language is a social phenomenon and the development and the enrichment of the language depend on the quality of models supplied by the adults, direct action by the teacher in reading aloud to the pupils may have an influence on the vocabulary development and on their linguistic competence in general. Research has proven that reading aloud to children is an excellent tool to develop the native language of the child. The question follows, if the first language can be enhanced by reading stories to the children, can this technique be as effective for children learning a second language?

The purposes of this research are two-fold:

1. to examine the impact of a 20-week program in which stories are read to Grade 3 students in French immersion programs by the teacher on their receptive and productive vocabulary as well as their

reading achievement.

2. to compare the methods of story presentation most conducive to beneficial results.

These purposes can be stated in the following manner:

1. Will extended exposure to stories comprehensible to Grade 3 French immersion students cause measurable gain in:

a. their receptive vocabulary,

b. their productive vocabulary,

c. their reading achievement?

2. Will clarification of the meaning of unfamiliar words in stories through appropriate explanation and activities cause a measurable increase in:

a. their receptive vocabulary,

b. their productive vocabulary,

c. their reading achievement?

General Background of the Study

"The desire of teachers to enlarge the vocabulary of children is universal" (Jenkinson, 1973). Semantic development is at once the most pervasive and the least understood aspect of language acquisition. "It is pervasive because the introduction of semantic organization into a child's grammar has repercussions across wide areas of cognition and beyond language itself" (McNeill, 1966).

Among the naturalistic situations conducive to language acquisition, reading stories aloud to children has proven to be an excellent tool to develop the language of the child, especially vocabulary and

concept formation (Leblanc & Leblanc, 1975). Children who have been exposed to oral reading of stories exhibit a high success rate in reading (Hansen & Hansen, 1973; Garthwaite, 1972; Hassenforder & Patte, 1973; Brown, 1975; Huus, 1967). Cazden (1970) reports, on a survey conducted by Gallup in which by interviewing 1,045 mothers of grade one children, the conclusion that the most distinctive feature between successful and unsuccessful students at that level was their exposure to stories read aloud to them since they were two years old. By reading aloud to children, in school, teachers continue to enrich the language of these children.

In the acquisition of a child's native language, the total language environment of the mother tongue including stories told or read to him as well as television, supply the structure and the content of the language he will read later. The child learning to read in a language other than his native language, does not usually benefit from the models mentioned above. Since the contact with the target language of children enrolled in French immersion programs is almost exclusively limited to their encounter with the teacher and their classmates, it is of prime importance to make available to them as many models as possible during the language acquisition process.

Definition of Terms

For this thesis the following definition of terms is essential.

Productive vocabulary: the words produced orally by the pupils (expressive comprehension) as evoked by the Picture Description Test.

Receptive vocabulary: the words whose meaning is understood by the pupils, when presented to them orally (listening comprehension) as evoked by the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test.

Read-aloud stories program: a program in which selected stories are read aloud to pupils by teachers during 15 minutes daily for a period of 20 weeks.

Early total immersion program: a program in which English-speaking children are taught completely in French from Kindergarten up to grade four, except for approximately one hour per day of English Language Arts introduced in grade two. As of grade five a greater proportion of the curriculum is taught in English, and eventually the program changes to one in which approximately 50% of the curriculum is taught in English and 50% in French. The contact with the target language (French) is almost exclusively limited to their encounter with the teacher and their classmates.

Key words: the words in the stories which play an important role in the comprehension of the story.

Single stories: the stories which were read completely in the same sitting.

Continuous stories: the stories read over a period of two to four days.

Lap-method: that type of reading which is analogous to the reading aloud of stories that is done by parents at home. Such oral reading is recognized as an intimate sharing enjoyment by the

adult and the child. This enjoyment is frequently enhanced when the child can see the pictures in the book.

T_1: the experimental group to whom key words were introduced prior to reading aloud the pre-selected stories.

T_2: the experimental group to whom pre-selected stories were read aloud without clarification or introduction of key words prior to reading aloud the pre-selected stories.

C: the control group that did not participate in the experimental study but continued with their habitual program.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were posed to answer the questions stated earlier:

H.1. There will be a significant difference between the pre- and post-tests of the T_1 and T_2 experimental groups when compared with the control group in:

a. their receptive vocabulary as measured by the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test.

b. their productive vocabulary as measured by a Picture Description Test devised specifically for this study.

c. their reading achievement as measured by a cloze silent reading test devised specifically for this study.

H.2. The introduction of key words prior to reading stories aloud to children will cause more significant improvement than reading without clarifying or explaining key words before reading

aloud to children in:

a. their receptive vocabulary as evidenced by the results of the pre- and post-tests of T_1 and T_2 groups.

b. their productive vocabulary as evidenced by the results of the pre- and post-tests of the T_1 and T_2 groups.

c. their reading achievement as evidenced by the results of the pre- and post-tests of the T_1 and T_2 groups.

The Design of the Study

Procedure

To determine the effect of oral reading by the teacher on the vocabulary of the student, a "read-aloud stories" program was planned whereby pre-selected stories were read aloud by teachers to the subjects. The teachers read stories to the experimental groups during an average of fifteen minutes a day for a twenty-week period. Two different treatments were given to the subjects. Both experimental groups participated in the "read-aloud stories" program but while T_1 participants were introduced to key words of the stories prior to reading aloud the pre-selected stories, T_2 participants received the reading of the pre-selected stories without clarification or introduction of key words. The control group did not participate in the "read-aloud stories" program, but continued with their habitual program.

The subjects, chosen from six Grade 3 classes of students in French immersion programs, came from equivalent linguistic backgrounds, that is unilingual anglophone, all in their fourth year of

uninterrupted immersion schooling. These subjects were pre-tested prior to the "read-aloud stories" program and post-tested following the experiment, to measure their receptive and productive vocabulary as well as their reading achievement.

Analysis of Data

Analysis of variance procedures were used to examine the data.

Significance of the Study

In spite of the fact that research indicates that reading aloud to children significantly improves their vocabulary knowledge and their reading comprehension, it must be noted these studies apply to unilingual English subjects only. This present research is addressing a different population, that of second language learners involved in total early immersion language programs. Very little research has yet provided insight on reading stories aloud as a strategy for developing linguistic competence in second language learners. To date, Leblanc and Leblanc (1975) with a similar research design, examined a population of French immersion students and French native speakers at the Grade 4 level. They found a significant difference in the general vocabulary development and concept formation of Grade 4 students of both groups. This study will provide insight into the relative effectiveness of two methodologies for presenting stories to Grade 3 second-language French immersion students.

The results of this study may sensitize teachers in immersion programs to the merits of reading aloud to students and to the

methodology most conducive to beneficial results. It may also indicate to curriculum planners, the need for restructuring language programs with an emphasis on reading aloud to children in order to build their experiential background and to facilitate concept formation.

Overview of Study

Chapter II will review the literature of the nature of language learning, the relation of reading to language learning, and the use of literature to facilitate language learning. In Chapter III the methodology of the research will be presented. The analysis of results will follow in the next chapter. An additional chapter will be added discussing teacher reports and the performance of some individuals, to give further insights on the study. Conclusions and the implications of the study will be detailed in the final chapter.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present a background to the theory of language learning. A study of the processes of learning a second language will assist in the appreciation of the problems encountered in vocabulary development and reading achievement, and ultimately the mastery of linguistic competence of the target language. The relation of reading language to the growth of word meaning and syntax will then be discussed. Finally, the research on the use of literature to facilitate language learning will be reviewed.

The Nature of Language Learning

The capacity for acquiring competence in one's native language within the first few years of life has been a subject of interest for many centuries. Language is a complex system as amply demonstrated by linguists who continue to struggle with definitions of language and its properties. It is only recently that researchers began to systematically analyze children's language in order to discover the nature of the psycholinguistic processes which enables human beings to master this complex system of communication.

Given a normal developmental environment, every child acquires his native language fluently and efficiently at a very young age. The

essentials of language are learned by the time children are 4 or 5 years old (Bloch, 1942; Carroll, 1960; Fisher, 1958; Smith, 1959; Tough, 1973; Chomsky, 1965). Taylor (1978) states:

> Children acquire their native language by informal settings, that is, an explicit tutoring of rules is absent. Language is acquired incidently while they are playing and acquiring knowledge about the world. Children become able to produce largely grammatical utterances without being able to articulate the rule by which they do so. Children have no choice but to acquire rather than to learn language.

The need to communicate at the moment is the crucial factor (Macnamara, 1975).

Children everywhere learn language as a means of social relating (Vygotsky, 1962) and learn it from adults with whom they have a significant relationship, not by rote, or by deliberate intent, but as part of the on-going relationship (Church, 1962) good or bad, that are inevitably meaningful to a child because he is a child. Furthermore, every child absorbs his native language with remarkable precision, but only in imitation of the available models (Bossard, 1945). A significant relationship exists between the linguistic performance of a child and the language of his environment, including the availability of language models and the opportunity to interact with the language (Ruddell, 1969).

The speed at which this evolution takes place has attracted researchers to investigate the mechanisms as well as the conditions necessary to efficient language learning. The closely studied area of language learning in babies has led to conclusions about second language learning. Analogies have been drawn by researchers between first and second language acquisition and these have been used to

develop certain second language teaching methods and techniques on the basis of first language learning principles.

Theories of First Language Acquisition

In principle, there are two extremist positions in the study of first language acquisition. The extreme behavioristic position would be that the child (Skinner, 1957; MacCorquodale, 1970) comes into the world with a tabula rasa, a clean slate bearing no preconceived notions about the world or about language. This child is then shaped by his environment, conditioned by reinforcement. At the other extreme, theory claims that the child is born with specific innate knowledge. Through his environment, he extends his knowledge of the nature of language and of the world. There are three types of generative theories which have been discussed in child language research. The nativist approach asserts that we are born with a built-in device that predisposes us to language acquisition (Lenneberg, 1969; McNeill, 1966). They are suggesting an innate capacity to process language. This is further supported by linguists such as Chomsky (1959). Cognitive psychologists however have emphasized the types of cognitive prerequisites which are essential to the emergent behavior of language (Piaget, 1974; Slobin, 1971; Bloom, 1976).

Second Language Acquisition

A growing number of studies are now available which shed some light on the linguistic processes of second language learning. It is clear that children learning two languages simultaneously acquire each of them by the use of similar strategies. They are in essence, learning two first languages (Swain, 1974), and the key to success is in

distinguishing separate contexts for the two languages (Bain & Yu, 1980). Usually there are two distinct contexts such as home/neighborhood, home/school or mother/father (Lambert, 1962).

This particular study deals with non-simultaneous second language acquisition within the limits of childhood, that is, a child who is acquiring a second language soon after he has begun to learn his first language (age 3 to 10).

For the most part, research reports that the linguistic and cognitive processes in first language learning and in second language learning are analogous (Kenyeres, 1938; Ravem, 1968; Dato, 1971; Natalicio & Natalicio, 1971; Milon, 1974; Dulay & Burt, 1974; Ervin-Tripp, 1974; Politizer & Ramirez, 1973). The learner is thought to engage actively although unconsciously, in the gradual discovery of the rule system underlying the language to which he is exposed.

McLaughlin (1977) describes the process as follows:

> In both L_1 and L_2 acquisitions, children appear to work from simple to more complex structures, to use meaning as a clue for interpreting syntactic features, to relate word order to meaning, and to prefer simpler word orders to make complex order strategies such as verb-subject inversions.

Dulay and Burt (1974) refer to the creative construction process which they describe as:

> The process in which children reconstruct rules for speech they hear, guided by unique mechanisms which cause them to formulate certain types of hypotheses about the language system being acquired, the mismatch between what they are exposed to and what—is resolved.

Bruck, Lambert, and Tucker (1974) support their statement:

> Although the young child acquiring his native language and the second-language learner may go about the task in somewhat different ways, the developmental pattern of each is systematic and predictable.

On the other hand, criticism of direct analogies between first and second language acquisition are presented by Cancino, Rosansky and Schumann (1974, 1975), Hakuta (1975) and Wode (1976). They address the inconsistencies of direct analogies between first and second language acquisition, but at the same time recognize legitimate similarities. Cancino, Rosansky and Schumann (1974, 1975) and Hakuta (1975) indicated that learners acquire structures of the second language in a variety of ways. Their findings did not coincide with the kind of sequences reported by Ravem (1968) and Milon (1974) for negative and wh-questions. They appear to concur with Wode (1976) in suggesting that children occasionally refer to first language structures to solve the difficulties of second language structures.

Politzer (1974) who expressed scepticism about the similarity between developmental sequences in first and second language acquisition, claims the point of view depends

> on the conceptual perspective one adopts toward language acquisition generally. From a cognitive perspective, the experiences are obviously different. There is no evidence that the sequence of cognitive operations to which first-language acquisition is tied is repeated in second-language acquisition. The child, in acquiring a second language, does not have to build up knowledge of the world from scratch. (McLaughlin, 1978)

On the other hand, if language acquisition is viewed as a process and in terms of strategies used in learning a language, the developmental sequences in first and second language appear more similar.

Development Features of the Language Acquisition Process for the Bilingual Child

McLaughlin (1977) in his review of the literature on second language learning in children presents the developmental features of the language acquisition process for the bilingual child.

There are at least three aspects to an adequate language acquisition system: sound-system processing, lexicon processing and grammatical processing (Ervin-Tripp, 1970). For the bilingual child, the task of distinguishing the sound-system is apparently complicated. There is naturally an initial period of confusion (Imedazze, 1967; Rüke-Dravina, 1967). When one language predominates as in the case of French immersion students, the phonological features of the dominant language may be substituted for those of the learned language (Swain, 1974). But since the language models of French immersion students, that is, their teachers, are preferably native speakers, the confusion is quickly dispersed as the children adopt the sound-system of their model.

The development of the bilingual child's lexicon is largely dependent on the models in his linguistic environment. During the first stages of language learning, the students gradually attempt to use the vocabulary they have been exposed to. The students learning a second language show relatively rapid vocabulary development when the natural situations are created in the classroom. If they do not know a particular French word, they replace it by an English word, spoken with a French accent. Eventually, the child's repertoire, grown to the point of fluency, permits him to express his knowledge in the second language.

As for the syntactic processing in bilingual classes, the sequence of development of the various classes and grammatical structures was the same in the acquisition of one's native language. Very early in their language development children are capable of learning whole phrases if they know their meaning. In fact, word order is related to meaning fairly early.

Studies of children learning a second language together with a native language or after a native language has been established, indicate that many of the same strategies and learning heuristics are involved in both cases.

The Relation of Language Learning to Reading

When learning to speak and understand his native language, the child learns to designate an object by a combination of sounds. He gradually discovers these combinations can also designate actions, relationships between objects, feelings, desires and ideas. He learns the auditory symbols which represent his knowledge of the world, can also be extended to abstract concepts. "Le monde réel est représenté par un monde symbolique" (Feitelson, 1976)

After having substituted a symbolic system for the world of reality, learning to read means learning to recognize this system in a different form. The auditory symbols to which he is accustomed are now translated into visual symbols. Having become aware that an idea can be represented by words (auditory symbols), learning to read, the realization that auditory symbols can be translated into visual symbols, is relatively easy. In order to learn to read, two skills

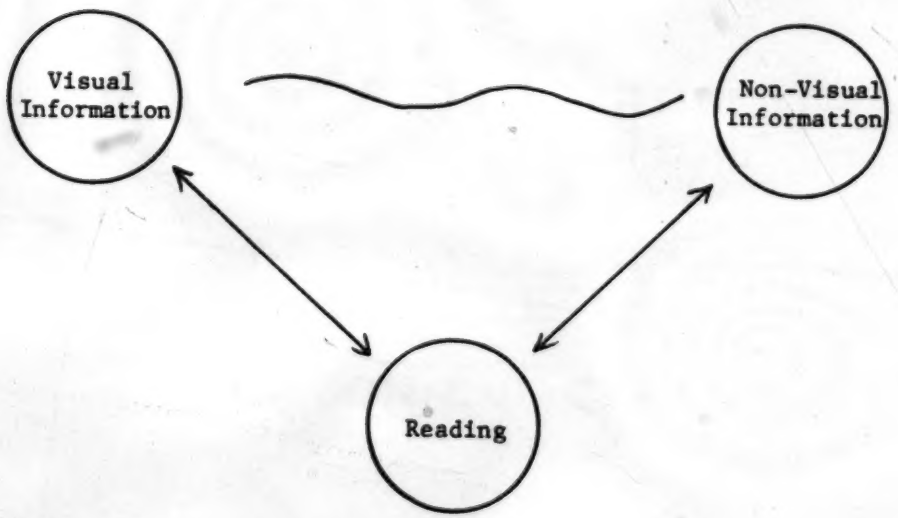
are essential: the discrimination of visual symbols used in his language and the ability to interpret these symbols thus deriving significance from the message. Smith (1971) states:

> In order to be able to read, one must learn the distinctive features of written language and their relations to letters and words and meanings.

We are aware that meaningfulness which is subject to our knowledge of the language, has a substantial role in facilitating the identification of words in reading. In fact, it involves an integration with everything else the learner knows about the world (Smith, 1975).

> If the child cannot associate meaning with the words he decodes, meaningful reading does not take place. A competent reader can pronounce every word in highly specialized literature, such as income tax instruction booklets, without understanding anything. (Sherman, 1979)

Smith (1971) presents his model of reading:



Visual information is the information from print that reaches your brain. Non-visual information refers to other kinds of information

such as an understanding of the relevant language, familiarity with the subject matter and some general ability in reading. Therefore, the task of teaching reading is not a simple one. Some of the efficacity of our reading instruction rests with the teacher. In order to learn to read, reading must be meaningful activity for the learner. Children will read only if they find reading a joyful activity and they will find it joyful only if they find it meaningful (Sherman, 1979). Carroll (1964) suggests that one of the major tasks of teachers of all levels of education is the teaching of words and of the meaning and concepts they represent.

> Students should be taught the meaning of unfamiliar words and idioms; they must be helped in recognizing unfamiliar ways in which words may be used; and they must be made generally aware of the possibility of ambiguity in meaning and the role of context in resolving it. (Carroll, 1964)

Nevertheless, learning how to read does not begin in the classroom. All young children's learning is based on their own direct experiences. Learning language is no exception. Since listening precedes speaking in the process of learning a language, language must be linked to experience and meaningful situations. So as to attain oral fluency and general second language ability, the concentration must lie on building children's experiential background and on facilitating concept formation; that is, continual replenishing of non-visual information. Recently, Dale (1976) described reading "as one type of linguistic performance, drawing on the same linguistic competence which underlies speaking and listening." Proponents of this psycholinguistic theory of reading (Neisser, 1967; Goodman, 1967; Ryan & Semmel, 1969) minimize the importance of visual information.

Czicko (1978) categorizes contextual information as follows:

1. syntactic constraints—constraints provided by the preceding words and the syntactic rules of the language.

2. semantic constraints—constraints provided by the meaning and selection restriction of the preceding words.

3. discourse constraints—constraints provided by the topic of the text.

In addition to presenting new insights into first language reading process, differences in first language reading and second language reading were brought forth. The results of a few studies (Macnamara, Feltin, Hew & Klein, 1968; Oller, 1972; Hatch, Polin & Part, 1974; Chihara, Oller, Weaver & Charez-Oller, 1977) reported that second language readers have difficulty in making use of these contextual constraints.

Oller, comparing the eye movements of foreign students reading English as a second language with norms for native speakers, found that the principal difference was that of a much longer duration of fixations for the second language readers. The second language students also made more fixations than the first language readers suggesting that the second-language readers relied more on visual information and less on contextual constraints. However, none of these studies attempted to separate the syntactic and semantic constraints. The differences between the first and second language readers were small and the authors did not show them to be statistically significant.

The Growth of Word Meaning

Evidence seems to point to the importance of knowledge of the meaning of words as a prerequisite for reading comprehension and achievement. The relationship between words and meaning is indeed a complex one.

The questions to be considered: Where does language come from? How do we get meaning from language? Psychologists and philosophers agree that articulated language is a distinguishing mark of humanity and that its acquisition as such, is dependent upon exterior support (Langer, 1957; Sapir, 1962; Schmidt, 1973).

Far from considering the limited view that learning and developing language in children as a spontaneous occurrence is due to simple biological maturation (Piaget, 1974) even cognitive maturation, it is rather, by immersion, in a stimulating linguistic climate that the child is able to master an autonomous language production, according to opportunities and experiences offered to him. As Vygotsky (1962) contends, words and their meanings are connected to experience and these connections are arbitrary. As pointed out by Ogden and Richards (1953) words in themselves have no meaning. Smith (1978) concurs as he claims that if there is to be any comprehension, it must come from the meaning that a receptor (listener or reader) brings to the language being attended to.

According to Payne (1972) experience is vital to the development of a sound conceptual foundation. Without this, reading for the child is a meaningless process of sounding out empty words. Until the child has had concrete experience with the concepts and equivalent

vocabulary, reading remains at a level of mere deciphering without comprehension.

Reading is itself another means of developing vocabulary. We learn vocabulary by reading, by hypothesizing the identity of new words that we meet in print and by testing that our hypotheses make sense in the context. Nevertheless, "there must be a strong enough toe-hold in word-knowledge before reading can be used profitably for further vocabulary growth" (Cohen, 1966).

Children do more than learn to read by reading: they learn language. It is an accepted fact that the vocabulary of children is far more restricted than that utilized in books and that the written syntax differs from the oral syntax. "Les enfants comprennent une langue plus riche qu'ils ne peuvent employer" (Leblanc & Leblanc, 1974). We are also aware of the existence of a variety of registers: literary, formal, specialized language, etc. Some children only function at the informal language level while others can easily surpass this level and understand a more elaborate code.

The Use of Literature to Facilitate Vocabulary Development

As revealed by the prelinguistic period of the development of a child, language evolves through modelling. At a very young age, the human infant is capable of reproducing sounds emitted by his mother. Who, in fact, has never observed a child copy, reproduce or imitate a specific linguistic behavior he had just witnessed, thus building his own language? He learns verbal responses from the conversations around him and soon, integrates these to create his own

original version by the process of selective imitation. Usually, the human infant acquires language by a long process of trial and error in his natural environment (Carroll, 1960).

Lentin (1973) believes the acquisition of language, in particular, vocabulary development is impregnated amongst children and peers but nevertheless affirms that syntax appears to be developed by adults.

> La structuration syntaxique elle, ne semble pas être developpée par les pairs mais par les adultes.

Repusseau (1968), a French language teacher who taught language by means of literature, states that all who speak or write are innocent plagerizers.

> A nos yeux, il n'existe pas, à proprement parlé, de langage spontané, et tout langage est un language emprunté.

The knowledge that language is learned initially in unself-conscious imitation of models incited the search for a body of language content which could be comprehensible in concept and meaningful in emotional impact to the young children whose language deficits could handicap them in their school learning. Furthermore, this body of model language had to serve as a model which would fulfill the schools' expectations of language usage as well as the children's needs for language enrichment. Literature, which deals with the full range of human experience and emotion, including that which is comprehensible and empathic to young children, offered an appropriate approach to the problem.

Since this study is addressed to second language learners in an early total immersion situation, the language in which reading is introduced becomes a crucial factor to the comprehension component of

learning to read. Being the language of instruction in this particular study is the target language, offering learning situations to facilitate the development of language to allow a clear and precise expression of our thoughts and our knowledge should then become the goal of language teachers. Wann, Dorn and Liddle (1973) express clearly this principle:

> Les adultes doivent trouver des moyens pour encourager et développer l'habitude et la capacité de raisonner, de penser, de tirer des conclusions et de généraliser. Parallelement à leur développement conceptuel, les enfants doivent se constituer une langue qui les aidera à exprimer clairement leurs idées et leur connaissances.

Given this particular circumstance in which the only language model available to the child is the teacher, other models have to be offered. As stated earlier by Lentin (1973), normally, syntactic structures are developed by adults.

If several adults are not able to supply the syntactic structures to the children learning a second language, reading stories aloud to them will supply the formal syntax, which children do not hear in everyday speech. By reading stories aloud to children at school, the teacher continues to enrich the linguistic environment of these children and introduces them to a new world of books and of reading.

Research evidence as presented in Table II-1, indicates that reading aloud to children significantly improves their vocabulary knowledge and their reading comprehension in English, their mother tongue. It also demonstrates that hearing literature read can affect reading interests and the quality of a child's language development.

A summary of pertinent research to this thesis is included in

Table II-1

Research on Reading Aloud to Children

Variable	Authors of the Study	University	Date	Level	Results
Reading achievement	San Andres	British Columbia	1969	Grade 5	No significant improvement
"	Porter	Ohio State	1970	Grade 4	Significant improvement
"	Almy	Columbia	1949	Grade 1	Significant improvement
"	Bailey	Boston College	1970	Grade 1	Significant improvement
"	Durkin	Columbia	1966	Pre-schoolers	Significant improvement
"	Lyons	Ohio State	1972	Gr. 1 & 2	No significant improvement
"	Fearn	Ohio State	1971	Grade 4	Significant improvement
Vocabulary (receptive)	San Andres	British Columbia	1969	Grade 5	No significant improvement
"	Cohen	New York	1966	Grade 2	Significant improvement
"	Foder	Cornell	1966	21-30 months of age	Significant improvement

Table II-1 (cont'd)

Variable	Authors of the Study	University	Date	Level	Results
Vocabulary (receptive)	Durkin	Columbia	1966	Pre-schoolers	Significant improvement
"	Foder	Cornell	1966	21-30 months of age	Significant improvement
Expressive vocabulary	Burroughs	Michigan State	1972	3 years olds	Significant improvement
Language acquisition	Chomsky	Harvard	1972	6-10 years olds	Significant improvement
Vocabulary (receptive) Linguistic performance	Leblanc & Leblanc	Sherbrooke	1975	Grade 4—French immersion and French native speakers	Significant improvement

in Table II-1. With the exception of two studies (San Andres, 1969; Lyons, 1972), the hypothesis that "read-aloud stories" programs improve the reading achievement as well as the receptive and productive vocabulary, is supported. The two exceptions claim the duration of their experiment (twelve weeks) may have been a deciding factor in their results.

Of all the studies mentioned, Leblanc and Leblanc (1975) are the only researchers to date to examine the impact of literature on the learning of the second language for bilingual children. They conducted a research with total immersion Grade 4 subjects as well as with Grade 4 native speakers of French. The effects of a "read-aloud stories" program on linguistic competence and attitude towards reading were measured. A beneficial influence on the general linguistic performance vocabulary, integration of the language as well as the attitude towards reading was reported for both groups.

Summary

Leblanc and Leblanc (1975) pioneered the examination of reading aloud to second language learners at the Grade 4 level. The present study aims to examine further the impact of reading aloud to younger subjects (Grade 3 students) as well as to research the merits of two different methodologies for presenting a story. The "lap-method" in which incidental vocabulary development takes place was compared do introducing key words in contextual situations prior to reading the stories aloud, thus promoting direct vocabulary learning.

Chapter III

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

This chapter will describe the selection of the sample followed by the explanation of the treatments. The test instruments will then be presented as well as the data collection procedures.

The Selection of the Sample

Six elementary schools in Alberta provided the setting for this research. All six were designated as schools teaching in French under Section 150 1(a) of the School Act. Permission to work in these schools was obtained from their respective school boards, the Edmonton Separate School Board and the St. Albert Public School Board. The selected schools drew pupils from the families of a similar socio-economic status. No school could be considered to have children with disadvantaged backgrounds.

Following the written permission from the school boards to pursue this research, the selection of schools was made in consultation with administrators and consultants.

In Alberta, there is an increasing demand for language teaching programs in immersion settings. At this point in time, immersion programs exist in Alberta, teaching the following languages: French, Ukrainian and German. This research focused on the children enrolled

in immersion programs in French. The sample was selected from children of equivalent linguistic backgrounds (unilingual anglophone) in their fourth year of uninterrupted French immersion schooling (early total immersion).

For this research, it is important to distinguish the varieties of French immersion programs available in Alberta.

Three basic types of French immersion programs which aim to develop a high level of bilingualism can be distinguished:

1. Early total immersion. The usual pattern of early total immersion is one where kindergarten and Grade 1 are totally taught in French, one period of English language arts is introduced in Grade 2 or 3 leading to approximately 50% of the time through English by Grade 5 or 6. Reading is introduced through French.

2. Early partial immersion. Kindergarten is usually taught in French, Grades 1-6 are 50% English-50% French. Reading is introduced in English.

3. Intermediate and late immersion. This category groups a variety of immersion programs which begin after the initial grades of elementary school and could begin anywhere from Grade 3 to Grade 12.

The Sample

The subjects were chosen from six Grade 3 classes of students in French early total immersion programs. There were 32 subjects in the two experimental groups and 20 subjects in the control group. The total number of subjects was 52.

Most research has stated that the value of a literature program holds true specifically at the elementary level. The third grade

seemed a likely time to expect measurable responses to vocabulary learning. In addition, the design of the study required that children have acquired sufficient skill in reading and writing to be able to handle the instrumentation used to collect data. It was evident from the initial pilot study that Grade 3 students had the appropriate competencies.

The Treatments

To determine the effect of oral reading by the teacher on the quality of a child's language development and reading performance, a "read-aloud stories" program was planned whereby pre-selected stories were read aloud by teachers to the subjects. The teachers in the four classes read stories to the experimental groups during an average of ten minutes a day for a twenty-week period. The two classes composing the control group did not participate in the "read-aloud stories" program: they continued with their habitual program.

The subjects were pre-tested to measure their linguistic competence as well as their reading skills. They were then exposed to the "read-aloud stories" program after which they were post-tested with the same instruments.

Special attention was also accorded to the methodology of the "read-aloud stories" program. All the participating subjects continued in the habitual Grade 3 French immersion program. However, there were two different treatments given to the subjects of the experimental groups:

T_1	T_2	Control
Habitual program plus the "Read-aloud stories" program with an introduction of key words before each reading.	Habitual program plus the "Read-aloud stories" program without the introduction of key words before each reading.	Habitual program only. The pre-selected stories were not read to the students.

The readings for the two treatments T_1 and T_2 were introduced by a short sensitization to the story, prepared by the investigator, for the participating teachers of the experimental groups. The following are examples of the introductions, to be presented prior to the reading of each pre-selected story.

Kerr, Judith. Le grand jour de Dorothée. Editions des Deux Coqs d'Or, Paris, 1974.

Sensibilisation: Avez-vous déjà assisté à un mariage? La journée d'un mariage est toujours un grand jour. Il y a beaucoup de préparations: les toilettes, le gâteau, une réception. Est-ce qu'on amène nos chiens et nos chats au mariage? Pourquoi pas? Ecoutez Le grand jour de Dorothée—nous verrons pourquoi nos petits amis (nommer quelques animaux préférés de vos élèves) ne sont pas invités au mariage.

Lionni, Léo. Alexandre et la souris mécanique. L'Ecole des loisirs, Paris, 1969.

Sensibilisation: Avez-vous déjà voulu être quelqu'un d'autre? Ça serait bien être grand. Ça serait bien être (n'importe quel héro pour eux). Alexandre est une petite souris qui voulait devenir comme son amie Grisette qui, elle, était une souris mécanique. Que va-t-il se passer?

The subjects of T_1 were exposed to the "read-aloud stories" program, which was preceded by a presentation of key words before the

reading. A variety of techniques was suggested to the teachers for this purpose. They were free to select among the following the most appropriate technique: discussion, question-answer, illustrations (pictures, transparencies, drawing on the blackboard), dramatization, etc.

The subjects of T_2 received the "read-aloud stories" program without the introduction of key-words. This treatment attempted to simulate the "lap-method" of reading stories to very young children.

The teachers of both experimental groups were strictly forbidden to interrupt the reading to explain or clarify a word.

Selection of Teachers

The experimental variable, regular story reading, was carried out by the teachers of the experimental classes, all of whom were licensed teachers of the Alberta Department of Education, with a minimum of four years of teaching experience.

They were invited by the investigator to participate on a volunteer basis. Enthusiastic teachers, reacting positively to the "read-aloud stories" program, were favored, to avoid marked differences in the participating teachers. Six teachers were chosen from six different schools, in order to minimize contamination. It was deemed desirable to select a single teacher from each school, to prevent an exchange of information about the study. Such discussions could have tempted the participating teachers to vary their treatment to assure better results of the subjects. For example, knowledge of the treatment given to the experimental groups may have suggested to the control group teachers to read stories regularly to their students,

thus contaminating the study. There was no evidence of alterations in teaching approaches by the control teachers.

Teacher Preparation

Four teachers were asked to read a story to their students every day for 20 consecutive weeks. The pre-selected stories were to be read with attention to phrasing, dramatic quality of voice, pace and knowledge of the story before reading.

Each participating teacher was trained during a personal interview with the investigator. The directions given to the teachers of the experimental groups are in Appendix A. This preparation was continued during regular visits of the investigator who constantly reminded them of their task and listened occasionally to the stories being read.

Selection of Stories

In order to choose judiciously the stories appropriate for Grade 3 students, teachers, librarians and children's literature experts were consulted. Various bibliographies of French children's literature also assisted in the selection of single and continuous stories. The single stories were read completely one day while continuous stories were read in sequences of up to four days.

Cohen (1966) states:

> Stories characterized as good literature for children are so designated by literary experts because of their language, their form, organic unity, appropriateness of theme and possibilities for child identification with characters and plots.

Therefore, the following criteria were decided upon for the selection of stories for this study:

1. Possibility for child identification with characters and plot.

2. Presence of attractive and supportive visuals.

3. Themes matching the interest of children—magic, fantasy, outer space themes.

The librarians of a number of French immersion schools were asked to determine which books were selected most frequently by Grade 4 immersion students. Since we understand more oral language than we are able to produce or read, books of a higher level of readability than that of the target population were selected for the study. The content of such stories was found to be more interesting for the subjects than those at their reading level. The librarians compiled a list of the most popular books. Various reference books such as Caputo's De quatre à quinze ans, Guide de lectures and Lemieux's Pleins feux sur la littérature de jeunesse au Canada Français, were also consulted. From these sources, the investigator, with the assistance of experienced Grade 3 teachers, determined the level of difficulty of the suggested books. From this analysis, a selection was made and presented to Grade 4 francophone students to read, to ensure they matched the interest of that age group. A list of the suggested stories is included in Appendix B.

Preparation of Stories

A preliminary trial of oral reading was executed to determine the length of a ten-minute segment, the desired duration of the daily reading period. The selected stories were then classified in four groups according to length and level of difficulty.

Group A - Single stories (up to 5 minutes)

Group B - Single stories (6-10 minutes)

Group C - Continuous stories (11-20 minutes)

Group D - Continuous stories (more than 20 minutes)

The continuous stories were segmented according to the approximate number of words needed to fulfill the time requirement always insuring the segment contained an appropriate psychological unit. In the case of continuous stories, a brief synthesis of the segment of the story read the previous day was made to assure continuity of the story.

Having selected the stories, the investigator then prepared a short introduction for each of these, as well as a list of key words to be given to the participating teachers of Treatment 1.

Test Instruments

Given the scarcity of research done on the impact of reading stories on the vocabulary of children involved in French immersion programs, it was difficult to find testing instruments appropriate for this purpose. Therefore, the instruments utilized for this research were either adapted or created for the design described earlier in the chapter. Two teacher-made cloze tests (an oral cloze test and a silent reading cloze test), a Picture Description Test and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test were used to determine the impact of stories read aloud to children, on their receptive and productive vocabulary as well as on their reading ability.

Prior to the experiments, a teacher-made oral cloze test, measuring both the receptive and productive vocabulary, was utilized to determine the level of achievement of the subjects.

Three pre- and post-test instruments were selected to measure the linguistic competence and the reading ability of the subjects: the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (French version) Form A, a Picture Description Test as well as a teacher-made silent reading cloze test.

Cloze Tests

The cloze procedure was utilized to determine the language competence as well as to measure the impact of the "read-aloud stories" program on the reading ability of the subjects.

An oral cloze test was administered individually, to each subject, to determine the high and low language users. In order to obtain an indication of the subjects' reading ability, the silent reading cloze test was utilized.

This procedure involves the deletion of every n^{th} word from a selected passage. In this study, every seventh word was deleted. The cloze procedure has been found to be a valid and reliable means of measuring reading comprehension (Jenkinson, 1957; Fletcher, 1959; Hafner, 1965 and Weaver, 1965). Oller (1971) claims this procedure to be a very useful measure of language proficiency.

Selections of reading material for children were surveyed in an attempt to find articles which would be suitable for the construction of cloze tests. Three stories found to be potentially interesting to both sexes, were selected. These stories contained approximately 285 words; each resulted in a 30-item test after deleting every seventh word.

To ensure the subjects were familiar with the cloze test procedure, a cloze test, constructed from a passage of a story in their readers,

was administered to all the subjects. This test is included in Appendix C.

The final selection of the passages for the cloze tests were obtained after three attempts. The first one consisted of a passage taken from a story in Grade 3 reading series, unknown to the subjects. The results of this 30-item cloze test having proven unsuccessful, another cloze test was given. A cloze test, utilized, in the assessment of the Grade 3 students' performance in the Alberta immersion setting, was piloted with an identical population, to verify the level of difficulty of this instrument. Not having obtained a suitable level of success, this test also had to be discarded. It was deemed necessary at this point, to divide the 30-item cloze test into three separate stories, to allow flexibility in the administration of the test. The investigator judged the 30-item cloze test to be too long and difficult to be completed in one sitting. This posed a problem especially for the pre-test of the silent reading cloze test given in the early portion of the year.

It was then decided to write passages and to delete every seventh word. A complete sentence was left intact at the beginning and at the end of each of the three passages. The passages were typed with standard size blanks replacing the deleted words. Their suitability for the major study was also evaluated in a further pilot study. Having obtained successful results, ranging from 50% to 80%, these 30-item teacher-made cloze tests were selected and administered by the investigator. Directives for the administration of the cloze tests are included in Appendix D.

The Oral Cloze Test

Since the results of these data will be adjusted according to low language users and high language users, the oral cloze test was administered individually to determine the language competence of each subject.

The investigator read the whole story, tapping gently on the desk for each blank. The story was then re-read by the investigator and the subject supplied the missing word, indicated again by a gentle tap on the desk. The subjects were informed each blank represented only one word. The investigator recorded each session on a tape recorder. The answers were then transcribed and corrected by the investigator not using exact responses. The oral cloze test and the acceptable answers are included in Appendices E and F. If the word was appropriate in the context of the story, the response was accepted. All acceptable responses received one point for a total of 30.

The Silent Reading Cloze Test

The silent reading cloze test was administered as a group test by the investigator, before and after the "read-aloud stories" program. The silent reading cloze test is included in Appendix G. The test was corrected by the investigator not using identical responses to the text.

Given the particular linguistic situation, the exact-response formula could not be utilized in correcting the silent reading cloze test. The investigator accepted responses according to the following criteria:

1. that the word be acceptable in the context of the story.

2. that the word be grammatically acceptable orally.

Spelling errors were overlooked but certain morpho-syntactic errors having repercussions on the oral form were not accepted. For example, the word son was not accepted in: "Il aime jouer avec Denis et son petite soeur, Rose." However, ils was accepted in: "ils va à l'école avec Denis et Rose." even though ils was written in the plural form, since it did not affect the phonetic code.

The three tests measuring the reading achievement were corrected by the investigator, using an evaluation grid, included in Appendix H. All acceptable responses received one point for a total of 11 for the first story, 11 for the second story and 9 for third story. The scores were then added and recorded on a possible score of 31.

The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test

Recently, a team of researchers at the University of McGill in Montreal, translated Form A and Form B of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, from English to French. This test was used to measure the vocabulary development in a study of bilingual classes in the area of Montreal. LeBlanc and LeBlanc (1975) chose the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test to measure the impact of reading stories to children, with a population identical to our subjects (early total French immersion students). In analyzing this testing instrument they found that a discrepancy was shown between Form A and Form B of the translated Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. Therefore, they used Form A for their pre-test as well as for their post-test. Because of the similarity of design and of the sample population of this research,

Form A was utilized for the pre-test as well as for the post-test in this study. Furthermore, as the pre-test was administered eight months prior to the post-test, it was deemed reasonable to assure the reliability of this instrument.

This test is composed of 150 words (nouns, verbs and some adjectives). Each word is accompanied by four pictures. The student indicates which picture matches the word pronounced by the test administrator. The level of difficulty increases as the test progresses. It is not necessary to administer the whole test, that is, the 150 words: the administrator's manual explains how to establish the starting point and the point of termination. The pilot test given prior to the experimentation, that is, in June, 1980 indicated the starting point at 0 and the termination point at 100.

Even though the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was originally constructed with the standard procedure for individual administration, Morris et al. (1960) presented evidence of no loss of reliability when the test was administered on a group basis. Further confirmation of the reliability of a group administration was supplied by Weeks (1963) on a sample of college students. Furthermore, a study conducted by Childers (1966) on the validity of a group administration of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test showed a significant correlation at the .01 level between the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test administered collectively and the Otis Standard Achievement Test. This indicates the collective administration of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test is as valid as the individual administration. The directions as given to the subjects for the administration of this test appear in Appendix I.

The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was therefore administered collectively by utilizing transparencies of the illustrations. These were corrected manually by the investigator. Examples of the illustrations and of the correct responses are included in Appendix J.

The Picture Description Test

The investigator provided pictorial cues in order to elicit oral responses in French. The selected picture was a large brightly-colored illustration of a busy street in a city, entitled The Village. The subjects were asked to examine the picture carefully and then give a verbal description of it in French. The subjects were not timed.

The Picture Description Test was piloted with students identical to the subjects prior to the pre-test, to give the investigator insights as to the administration of the test as well as to the quality and the potential of the selected picture.

This test was administered by the investigator to the individual subjects. The directives for the Picture Description Test are included in Appendix K. The utterances were recorded on a tape recorder and were later transcribed by the investigator.

After the transcription of the utterances, the numbers of words spoken during the first two minutes were identified and counted. The utterances containing English words were then eliminated, for example: "le broom." The total number of words spoken was tabulated followed by an elimination of repetitions. Articles such as le, la, les, were not counted as repetitions because of the important role they play in the French language. The total number of verbs, modifiers and nouns consisted of the last category of scores, for a total of six categories

of scores. These scores collected in a pre- and post-test situation, were then analyzed separately.

Data Collection

Preceding all the testing situations, the students were assured that the results of these would not influence their teacher's evaluation of them. They were invited to respond to the best of their knowledge.

All the tests were administered and corrected by the investigator.

To terminate this chapter Table III-1 presents the chronology of this research.

Data Analysis

A two-way analysis of variance was used to analyze the collected data. The impact of the Treatments 1 and 2 vs. the control group was examined, as well as the interaction between T_1 and T_2.

Table III-1

Chronology of Research

	Date
• Pilot of Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test	June, 1980
• Survey of stories to select	June, 1980
• Control of selected stories (level of difficulty and interest)	June, 1980
• Preparation of selected stories	July, 1980
• Pilot of cloze tests (oral and reading)	September, 1980
• Pilot of Picture Description Test	September, 1980
• Administration of a cloze test to subjects (to familiarize them with the instrument)	September, 1980
• Teacher preparation	September, 1980
• Administration of the oral cloze test	September, 1980
Pre-testing	1980
• Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test	September 15-18
• Cloze test (silent reading)	September 29-October 2, 1980
• Picture Description Test	October 6-9, 1980
"Read-aloud stories" program	October 20, 1980-December 12, 1980 January 3, 1981-April 16, 1981
Post-testing	
• Peabody	April 22-April 28, 1981
• Cloze test (silent reading)	May 4-May 6, 1981
• Picture Description Test	May 7-May 14, 1981

Chapter IV

FINDINGS—TEST RESULTS

It was hypothesized that the introduction of a special program in literature into the curriculum of Grade 3 early total French immersion students would cause significant measurable improvement in (1) vocabulary and (2) reading. This chapter will examine the results obtained on the various tests used in this research to prove or disprove the hypotheses advanced in Chapter I.

The statistical analysis of each test will be presented followed by a discussion and a summary of the results.

The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was used to gather information on their receptive vocabulary. A Picture Description Test gave data on productive vocabulary which was assessed according to the following criteria: the total number of words spoken, the number of words emitted during the first two minutes of the test, the total number of words without repetition, the number of nouns, verbs and modifiers used. A cloze silent reading test, devised for this study, measured their reading achievement. The results of these tests were assessed quantitatively.

The group means of the difference of scores of high language users and low language users and their standard deviations were obtained for the two experimental groups and the control group on each test administered for the purposes of this study. These were

then used for an analysis of variance to determine whether a significant difference would be found between the experimental groups and the control group of this study.

If a significant difference was found, the Scheffé procedure was utilized to determine whether introducing key words prior to reading had an effect on the subjects of the two experimental groups.

The dependent variable for each of the tests used to collect the data is the difference between the pre-test score and the post-test score of the tests, identified as group means of the difference of the scores.

The scores for the three groups (two experimental groups and one control group) were categorized according to high language users and low language users. Therefore, an oral cloze test, measuring the receptive and the productive vocabulary, was administered prior to the experiment to determine the high language users and the low language users.

Table IV-1 shows the results of the oral cloze test. According to calculations where high language users and low language users are determined by a split at the median, the subjects having obtained a score of 19 or more, were considered high language users, while the subjects with a score of 18 or less were classified as low language users.

The instruments used to collect the data were administered in blocks. As presented in Table III-1, the chronology of the study, the subjects were tested following a schedule in which each instrument was administered to all the subjects in the time allotted for these.

Table IV-1

Results Obtained by Each Group for the Cloze (Oral) Test

T_1			T_2			Control		
Subject	Score	Level	Subject	Score	Level	Subject	Score	Level
1	25	H	18	25	H	33	17	L
2	21	H	19	15	L	34	16	L
3	18	L	20	15	L	35	21	H
4	14	L	21	18	L	36	23	H
5	19	H	22	20	H	37	20	H
6	16	L	23	18	L	38	26	H
7	20	H	24	23	H	39	25	H
8	19	H	25	21	H	40	22	H
9	18	L	26	21	H	41	24	H
10	16	L	27	17	L	42	22	H
11	18	L	28	16	L	43	17	L
12	20	H	29	18	L	44	24	H
13	24	H	30	16	L	45	25	H
14	21	H	31	14	L	46	18	L
15	18	L	32	18	L	47	20	H
16	17	L				48	17	L
17	17	L				49	17	L
						50	21	H
						51	16	L
						52	13	L
		H = 8			H = 5			H = 12
		L = 9			L = 10			L = 8

H: High language users
L: Low language users

For example, the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was administered to all the subjects before the Picture Description Test was begun. Only one test was given per day. These precautions were taken to assure equal opportunity for each subject.

The group means of the difference of scores for low language users and high language users for all the groups on each test administered are shown in Appendix O.

The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test

Table IV-2 shows the analysis of variance for the two experimental groups and the control group on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test.

Table IV-2

Analysis of Variance of the Experimental Groups and the Control Group on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig. of F
Constant	4731.08	1	4731.08	25.11	.000
Level	462.25	1	462.25	2.45	.124
Group	1993.63	2	996.81	5.29	.009*
Group by Level	561.05	2	280.53	1.49	.236

*Significant at .001.

The results of the analysis of variance among the groups determines whether the treatments were significant or not. Since the difference was significant ($F = 5.29$, $p < .001$) it is assumed the

treatments as described in Chapter I caused a measurable gain on the receptive vocabulary of the subjects.

Table IV-3 shows the treatment means for the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test for both experimental groups and the control group.

Table IV-3

Treatment Means for the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test for Both Experimental Groups and the Control Group

	T_1	T_2	Control
N	17	15	20
Treatment Means	15.47	13.93	1.20

According to calculations obtained by using the Scheffé procedure, the treatments Treatment 1 vs. Control and Treatment 2 vs. Control interacted at a significant level ($p < .05$) for the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. The treatment Treatment 1 vs. Treatment 2 did not interact significantly. Both treatments are significantly different from the control but they are not significantly different from each other.

Therefore it is assumed that reading aloud to Grade 3 French immersion students affects their receptive vocabulary. However introducing key words to the subjects prior to reading was not found to be beneficial for the development of their receptive vocabulary.

Silent Reading Cloze Test

Table IV-4 shows the analysis of variance for the two experimental groups and the control group on the silent reading cloze test.

Table IV-4

Analysis of Variance of the Experimental Groups and the Control Group on the Silent Reading Cloze Test

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig. of F
Constant	665.31	1	665.31	69.23	.0
Level	.01	1	.01	.001	.970
Group	100.59	2	50.29	5.23	.009*
Group by level	.028	2	.01	.001	.999

*Significant at .001.

The results of the analysis of variance indicate the treatments were significant ($F = 5.23$, $p < .001$). Therefore it is assumed that the treatments caused a measurable gain in the reading ability of the subjects.

Table IV-5 shows the treatment means for the silent reading cloze test for both experimental groups and the control group.

Table IV-5

Treatment Means for the Silent Reading Cloze Test for Both Experimental Groups and the Control Group

	T_1	T_2	Control
N	17	15	20
Treatment Means	5.412	1.933	3.25

Having obtained the treatment means, the Scheffé procedure was used to determine the significance of the treatments in relation to each other. In the light of these data, it was found the treatments differ from each other but neither differ from the control group. It is, however, interesting that in spite of the significant difference between T_1 and T_2, the control group scored higher than T_2. Nevertheless, introducing key words prior to reading the stories is beneficial to the development of the reading ability of the subjects. These differences will be discussed later in this chapter.

The Picture Description Test

The words said by the subjects during the Picture Description Test were assessed quantitatively. The words were classified according to six categories: the total number of words, the number of words spoken during the first two minutes, the total number of words without repetition, the number of nouns, the number of modifiers and the number of verbs. The group means of the difference of scores and the standard deviations were determined for each group and these were used for analysis of variance to determine whether a significant difference could be found between the experimental groups and the control group.

Table IV-6 shows the analysis of variance for the six sub-tests of the Picture Description Test.

Since the F ratio in each of these tests was not significant, it indicates that the treatments given to the experimental groups did not significantly increase the productive vocabulary of these students in

Table IV-6

Analysis of Variance of the Experimental Groups and the Control Group on the Sub-tests of the Picture Description Test

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig. of F
Total Number of Words					
Constant	278277.23	1	278277.23	9.059	.004
Level	1623.14	1	1623.14	.052	.819
Group	70657.94	2	35328.97	1.150	.326
Level by group	47532.09	2	23766.05	.773	.467
Number of Words Spoken in the First Two Minutes					
Constant	542.77	1	542.77	1.02	.318
Level	369.23	1	369.23	.69	.409
Group	1745.03	2	872.51	1.64	.206
Level by group	128.76	2	64.38	.12	.886
Total Number of Words Without Repetition					
Constant	281505.31	1	281505.31	11.64	.001
Level	3954.86	1	3954.86	.16	.668
Group	33496.54	2	16748.27	.69	.505
Level by group	48239.35	2	24119.68	1.00	.377
Total Number of Verbs					
Constant	2056.37	1	2056.37	4.503	.039
Level	.05	1	.05	.000	.992
Group	433.48	2	216.74	.474	.625
Level by group	235.47	2	117.73	.258	.774

Table IV-6 (continued)

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig. of F
Total Number of Modifiers					
Constant	2464.69	1	2464.69	5.756	.021
Level	387.08	1	387.08	.904	.347
Group	497.50	2	248.75	.580	.563
Group by level	847.75	2	423.87	.990	.379
Total Number of Nouns					
Constant	24295.69	1	24295.69	15.044	.000
Level	779.88	1	779.88	.483	.491
Group	2936.39	2	1468.20	.909	.410
Group by level	3096.16	2	1548.08	.959	.391

this contextual situation. A further analysis of the Picture Description Test might shed light on the issue at hand.

Table IV-7 shows a summary of the results obtained for each variable. The table presents the significance of treatments (Treatment 1 and Treatment 2) vs. control.

Table IV-7

Summary of the Results Obtained

Variable	Significance of Treatments vs. Control	
Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test	Yes	Both treatments significantly different from control but not significant from each other.
Cloze Reading Test	Yes	Treatments differ from each other but neither differ from control.
*PDT (Total)	None	
PDT (2 min.)	None	
PDT (Total without repetition)	None	
PDT (Verbs)	None	
PDT (Modifiers)	None	
PDT (Nouns)	None	

*Picture Description Test

The hypothesis that the receptive vocabulary and the reading ability of Grade 3 French immersion students could be improved by the regular use of literature in the classroom was confirmed. However, the development of the productive vocabulary did not seem affected by the treatments given to the experimental groups in this particular study.

It is important to analyze the nature of the learning that took place as well as certain discrepancies present in the collected data. First, we shall consider the kinds of growth patterns which emerged when the total group data were broken down in groups of high language users and low language users. A comparison of the average gains made by high language users and low language users of the experimental groups and the control group as shown in the tables of analysis of variance of each test, shows the "read-aloud stories" program did not affect the two levels of language users differently.

The significant differences obtained in the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test and in the silent reading cloze test as opposed to the nonsignificance of all the sub-tests of the Picture Description Test deserve attention. The discrepancy was possibly due to the fact that the treatments were limited to reading only. The teachers were asked not to plan or execute follow-up activities after the readings. At no time were the students invited to discuss or summarize the story. This instruction was deliberately introduced so as not to confuse the results. From the nonsignificance of the results, we could hypothesize that the introduction of oral activities in the design of the research may have caused a measurable gain in the development of the productive vocabulary.

However, as shown in Table IV-6, the subjects all showed a measurable gain in the Picture Description Test, with the exception of the fluency test, as measured by the quantitative assessment of the number of words spoken during the first two minutes. It would be valuable to determine at what point, in their acquisition of a second language, the students transfer their receptive vocabulary to their

productive vocabulary. Further investigation with students of different age groups could give insights as to when this occurs.

In spite of the nonsignificant results of the Picture Description Test, the average gains for most of the sub-tests are indicative of an increase of their productive vocabulary. However, due to the large fluctuation of performance among the subjects, the results of this particular test did not appear significant. The total number of words given ranged from 31 to 1,677, with standard deviations as high as 199.04. The analysis of the group's performance may have biased the individual's productive vocabulary test results. To further clarify this statement, case studies will be presented in the next chapter.

Another factor affecting the results may have been the choice of instrument to collect the data measuring the receptive vocabulary. The pictorial cues presented for the Picture Description Test may not have been appropriate to elicit the use of the new vocabulary acquired during the "read-aloud stories" program.

Personality traits and the testing situations (time and space) are other factors which may have been responsible for the large discrepancy of the individual's raw scores in the Picture Description Test. Case studies will be presented in the next chapter to attempt to explain the results further. These results can also point to the ineffectiveness of the experimental variable, in terms of productive vocabulary, for this population.

Valuable insights were gained from the results of the Picture Description Test. In the context of second-language learning, especially in the immersion programs, the students experience the

role of functional language very intensively. The need to understand and to be understood exercises such a strong motivation for the students, that they employ any means to arrive at their end. It is thus not surprising that they develop communication strategies that are not always accurate, but nevertheless, effective.

Upon analyzing the results, it would seem possible to surmise that the most common characteristic of this particular population in producing language lies in the use of "intermediate language" (Selinker, 1969, 1972). His hypothesis is based on the discourse of second-language learners as compared to native speakers in which he finds phonological, grammatical, lexical or semantic differences.

The remarkable influence of the linguistic system of the native language on that of the intermediate language is symptomatic of a strategy frequently utilized by second-language learners.

> Outre le processus faisant directement appel aux systèmes linguistiques de la langue maternelle et de la langue d'arrivée, nous assumons que des prérequis cognitifs et perceptifs contribuent à la formation de la langue intermédiaire comme c'est le cas dans l'acquisition de tout code linguistique. (Bever, 1970; Slobin, 1973)

Selinker (1969, 1972) suggests the existence of second-language learning processes that contribute to the formation of the intermediate language. Language transfers, overgeneralizations of the linguistic code of the target language and communication strategies in a second language, were identified on the transcriptions of the Picture Description Test.

The utilisation of the proper gender does not seem to have been mastered in the spontaneous production of the participants of this

research. With the exception of a few subjects, the transcriptions of the recorded Picture Description Test all contained errors of this nature. Within the transcription of the same subject, it is not uncommon to find the use of both genders with the same noun; for example, le/la porte, un/une maison. In their realization of the importance of functional language, could it be that gender words are redundant and secondary in the expression of a meaningful message? Therefore the mastery of gender words would not be one of their immediate preoccupations when learning a second language. It could also be an overgeneralization of the target language. For example, Son = his/mon = my therefore "son" is used for son, sa and "mon" is used for mon, ma, mes.

The term "language transfers" refers to the process of constructing sentences in the target language in the same fashion as in the native language. In the data collected, examples of various language transfers were found:

Je vois une madame marche son chat.
(I see a woman walking her cat.)

Ça regarde comme . . .
(It looks like . . .)

Je vois la fille qui a grand cheveux.
(I see a girl who has long hair.)

Une personne marché.
(a person walking)

J'ai a vu . . .
(I have seen . . .)

The most frequent cases of intermediate language were the use of English words pronounced in French, to describe their thought; for example, "le gas station," le "baker," le "church." In these

instances, the whole phrase was not counted.

After the analysis of the spontaneous discourse of these second-language learners, it became evident that an intermediate language is part of their second language learning process.

The results of the reading achievement test also reveals an interesting discrepancy. The treatments differed from each other but neither differed from the control group. Table IV-5 shows the treatment means obtained from the silent cloze test.

The discrepancy in the reading achievement results may be due to the fact that there was a considerable number of low language users in the T_2 experimental group. Out of 15 subjects, 10 were considered low language users as identified by an oral cloze test. Furthermore, their difference between mean scores for the high language users as well as the low language users as presented in Appendix O was considerably lower than Treatment 1 and the control group's difference.

The group mean of the pre-test scores obtained from the Treatment 1 experimental group was inferior to that of Treatment 2 experimental group and to that of the control group: Table IV-8 shows these results.

Table IV-8

The Unadjusted Means of the Pre-Tests Obtained by Each Group for the Silent Reading Cloze Test

	T_1	T_2	Control
N	17	15	20
Mean	16.47	14.60	16.65

The Treatment 2 experimental group and the control group were shown to be better readers before the experiment. In spite of the average gain made by all the participants it is predictable that Treatment 1 subjects will improve relative to their reading ability at the start of the experiment. The effect seems related to the stage along the continuum at which the subjects are functioning at the time of exposure. These remarks are mere observations by the investigator. It is difficult to attribute these findings uniquely to the treatment received. The subjects no doubt improved their knowledge of French in their daily habitual language program.

Summary

The following is a summary of the results obtained.

1. Exposure to a 20-week "read-aloud stories" program has caused a measurable gain in the development of the receptive vocabulary and in the reading ability of Grade 3 French immersion students.

2. Continued and regular listening to stories does not appear to affect the productive vocabulary of Grade 3 French immersion students.

3. The specific strategy of introducing key words prior to reading the stories appears to have enhanced the reading ability of the students involved. The receptive and productive vocabulary was not influenced by this treatment.

4. All the subjects showed a gain in their vocabulary and reading ability. The "read-aloud stories" program appears to have affected both levels of language users in the same manner.

5. Individual differences play a major role in learning style and aptitude. The levels of competence vary considerably across the selected group.

Chapter V

FINDINGS—TEACHER REPORTS AND CHILDREN'S REACTIONS

Regular conferences with each participating teacher in the experimental groups elicited comments which were recorded by the investigator. The examination of the teachers' daily report on the interest and the level of comprehension of the students and a teachers' questionnaire, included in Appendix N, reveal important considerations in the selection of stories to be read to students. Furthermore, interviews of participating subjects as well as the teachers' general comments about the experience added light on the scope of understanding more fully the impact of the "read-aloud stories" program. This chapter attempts to synthesize the teachers' reports on their classes as well as give anecdotal information of the children's reaction to the program.

Teachers' Reports

The suitability of the stories in this research was supported by the reports of the participating teachers. They felt the students identified with the plots and the characters in the stories, offering a large variety of themes, even though some external features in the story might be quite remote from their lives. For example, Trubloff, la souris qui voulait jouer de la balalaïka, is a story of a mouse playing a balalaïka in a Russian environment. The illustrations portrayed the life-style of the Russian people. However, a marked

difference in the degree of attention was noted when complex plots or abstract themes were presented. L'histoire de Bip, written by Marcel Marceau was cited as an example. The ability to identify with the less personal and concrete seems associated with the level of abstraction the listeners possessed, necessary for easy handling of the symbolic processes involved in reading.

Occasionally, a few students were familiar with stories read to them, but repetition being quite acceptable at this age level, did not hamper their interest in the project and may even have enhanced their experience because of the increased comprehension of the story. The most frequently cited examples were: Anderson's La petite fille aux allumettes, which they had recently seen on television, and Walt Disney's Mickey, Gulliver and Mickey et le haricot magique. A list of the stories read during the 20-week period is included in Appendix B.

The illustrations as aids to the clarification of meaning remained important throughout the program. The books offering pictures with vivid colors and clear details, such as L. Lionni's collection, were quoted as favorites. In the pilot reading program, held in June, 1980, a variety of stories were presented to an identical population to the subjects. Because of the reactions of these children, books without or with few illustrations were quickly dismissed as possible choices. Also discarded from the collection were the stories which did not present a story sequence, such as documentaries.

The teachers all agreed the vocabulary of the stories was

occasionally too difficult, especially for the low language users, but in spite of that fact, the students understood the gist of the stories. Some resistance to the "read-aloud stories" program was possibly due to this factor. In general, the children cooperated and responded positively during the reading sessions.

The comprehension of the story was constantly emphasized and the students were reminded that the continuity of the story would be jeopardized if they attempted to explain all the unknown words. An increased awareness of words and word meaning was noted. The students quickly became absorbed in the comprehension of words expressing concepts. The students, therefore, discontinued asking the meaning of isolated words, realizing the context and the illustrations would clarify the meaning for them. The comprehension of the story was emphasized rather than that of isolated words. Numerous discussions emanated from the stories read to them. For example, the story, Le grand jour de Dorothée, describing Dorothée's wedding preparations and finally her wedding day when a frog disturbed the whole celebration, triggered interesting discussions, especially among the girls.

The growth in listening skills appeared to be one of the most outstanding accomplishments of the participants. All the participating teachers noted the increased attention span to heard language. A leap in level of understanding that moved from dependence on concrete experience to grasp of meaning of experience through language heard was apparently taking place for many children. For this reason, the teachers appreciated the progression of single stories to continuous stories later in the year. The increased ability to sustain attention

in the flow of language allowed these children pleasure.

With the exception of one participating class, the length of the stories was not a factor in the interest and comprehension level of the stories. One teacher stated, "The children enjoy the story no matter how long it lasts." From the monthly conference with the teachers and the observations of the reading, it appeared to the investigator that the better readers among the teachers in the experimental classes expressed less dissatisfaction with the more difficult and longer books, and their students in turn seemed better able to cope with the stories, given the assistance of well phrased, expressive reading. This observation certainly deserves further investigation.

After observing some reading sessions in the experimental classes, the investigator concluded the interest level of the listeners was highly correlated to the presentation and to the enthusiasm of the reader. The placement of the students played an important role in the success of the program. The students sitting around the reader appeared to maintain interest in the stories better than the students sitting in their desks. Most participating teachers displaced their students regularly for the readings. Only in one instance did the students remain in their desk all the time. Showing the illustrations while reading the stories was common to all experimental groups. The environment must be conducive to good listening and to viewing the illustrations. A brief training period, described in Appendix A, was given to the participating teachers, during which time these suggestions for presentation were made.

The investigator prepared a short introduction for each story,

to sensitize the listener to the theme and to trigger his curiosity. For example, the introduction supplied for one of the stories, Alexandre et la souris méchanique, written by Léo Lionni, was as follows:

> Avez-vous déjà voulu être quelqu'un d'autre? Ça serait bien être grand. Ça serait agréable être _____ (n'importe quel héro pour eux). Alexandre est une petite souris qui voulait devenir comme son amie Grisette qui, elle, était une souris mécanique. Que va-t-il se passer?

The teachers unanimously agreed this preparation was useful and essential to the comprehension and the maintenance of attention of the listeners.

The participating teachers of Treatment 1 experimental group were supplied with the total package to be delivered: the stories were selected for them, the brief introduction for each story was supplied and a list of key words for each story had been selected for them. However, the mode of presentation for these key words was left to the discretion of the teacher. Suggestions of possible ways to introduce these words were given during their brief training period. It was reported that the presentation of key words nurtured interest in the stories. Diverging opinions were given concerning the importance of visuals in the introduction of the key words. One of the participating teachers felt visuals per se were not crucial to the comprehension of the key words. Among the variety of strategies used, mime as well as writing the key words on the blackboard before the students arrived in the morning were felt to be particularly effective means of presenting them. She stated:

"Towards the middle of the program, the students made a game of predicting the story of the day, simply by reading the words written on the blackboard." Needless to add that another benefit to these particular students was the orthography of words which they decoded and attempted to transfer into meaningful concepts. The presentation of key words, always to be introduced in a contextual situation, depended on the nature of the words (verbs, active and passive, nouns, concrete and abstract, etc.).

The teachers responsible for Treatment 2 found it difficult to restrict themselves to reading only. They inadvertently clarified word meanings for the students, in spite of the serious commitment they had to the research problem.

The participating teachers all mentioned the difficulty of refusing to allow follow-up activities after reading the stories. The students were motivated to discuss the stories, rewrite or change portions of the stories or exploit the story during the art period etc.

In other research of this nature, it would appear a synthesis of the story verbalized by the students might be the key to significant change. In retrospect, it is possible that such an activity could have given a significant measurable gain in the productive language of the subjects. However, the participating teachers mentioned the importance of the gratuitous presentation of stories. The stories were read without an expected task after the reading. As one teacher reported: "There was no stress involved in the program; if a follow-up activity was suggested by students, it was a spontaneous gesture." In general, they felt a systematic synthesis may have hampered the

interest of the activity of listening for the sheer pleasure of being read to.

Another accomplishment reported by every teacher was the change of attitude towards reading. The students expressed the desire to read the stories they heard. To avoid contamination of the study, the participating teachers were instructed not to make the stories available to the students. The teachers expressed the difficulty of such a directive. One teacher claimed: "The students repeatedly asked to read the story that she had read to them. The librarian soon became aware of the stories being read in class." In order to sustain the impetus manifested by the students, the teachers carefully guided them to similar stories in the library. Another teacher commented: "Since I began reading stories to them, they always have a library book on the corner of their desk. The experiment obviously triggered an enthusiasm to read library books.

Finally, the teachers unanimously agreed that the "read-aloud stories" program did not deter from their habitual program. On the contrary, it enhanced their language arts program. As suggested by one individual: "This program was not a task but a welcomed suggestion, considered a beneficial investment of time." The program was found to be an indirect educational benefit to the students. The teachers, all convinced of the merits of the "read-aloud stories" program, agreed they would pursue it in their future teaching career.

Individual Differences Amongst the Children

In spite of the rank order retained for the pre- and post-tests within the experimental groups and the control group, the individual differences are noteworthy: they play a major role in learning styles and aptitude within the same age level. According to the data collected from children of the same age group, language ability exists along a continuum at one end of which is inadequate comprehension of the spoken word and limited concentration in listening. The continuum proceeds through stages of oral usage of differing complexity and ends at ability to handle the symbols of reading and writing at differing levels of facility. While comprehension, oral language and the use of written symbols may and do occur in the same child at the same time, the levels of competency vary considerably across the age group in an overlapping pattern of increasing skills. "Individual experiences are apparently too differentiated to assess word knowledge numerically with any accuracy, for any given group" (Cohen, 1966).

The reality of individual differences became particularly obvious in the Picture Description Test. The subjects reacted as individuals, rather than as a group, regarding their performance in describing verbally the colorful, unstylized picture of a village, containing a rich variety of activity and of characters. To help the reader appreciate the variety of factors affecting the performance of the subjects, several case studies will be presented.

Case Studies

Some case studies will include the transcriptions of the Picture Description Test. The correction grid and the symbols of the data collected appear below.

Correction Grid

[ ]	Disqualified utterance
/^{2}	Marks 2 minute interval
(word)	Repetitions
word	Verbs
*	Modifier
o	Nouns

Symbols of the Data Collected

T	Total number of words
2'	Total number of words spoken during the first 2 minutes
TWR	Total number of words without repetition
V	Total number of verbs used
M	Total number of modifiers used
N	Total number of nouns used

Case 1: Subject S

The importance of timing is sometimes crucial to the performance of students on tests used to collect data. The case now presented is an example of a student whose attitude toward school, his peers, his teacher and the investigator deteriorated considerably during the experimentation.

Oblivious to an incident during the recess period, involving Subject S, the investigator administered the Picture Description Test to this student. A passive resistance was noticed whereupon the investigator discussed this behavior with the teacher. It was only after the data were collected that the investigator became aware of the situation. The transcription of Subject S's Picture Description Test gives insight on the impact of the circumstances in which testing takes place.

Case 2: Subject K

The Picture Description Test was given individually to all the subjects. Even though the investigator attempted to avoid interruptions, unexpected situations occasionally disturbed the administration of the tests. The transcription on page 71 is an example of a pre-test which was interrupted by a fire drill. The teacher of this subject claims that performance of this subject, who is an avid reader, was obviously curtailed by the incident. An attempt to pursue the description after the fire drill proved futile.

Case 3: Subject D

Time and space were also noted as crucial factors to the performance of some of the subjects. The example on page 73 shows the results of the pre- and post-tests of the Picture Description Test of a student who had undergone emotional instability due to family problems in the period of the research. The test was given in the medical room in which he had experienced painful encounters with the school psychologist and the school administrator. His nervous disposition

Picture Description Test of Subject S

Pre-Test

Une maison, des personnes, des personnes sur un bicyclette, un chien, un chat, [un post office,] des arbres, un auto, et un chose où tu mets du gaz dans l'auto, [un stand de fruits,] et des fleurs des carottes, et ça, un autobus, un téléphone, il y a un dame qui porte un chien, [et un bakery,] et un chat, un directeur, un monsieur qui est sur le banc/2 et un monsieur [avec un broom,] des autos [sur le highway,] un petit fille qui joue et un autre qui joue pas, un chose où il y a [du beef et ham,] il y a une horloge et une madame avec des casques qui a des trous dedans, il y a une chose qui a un gros T et un église.

T = 111	V = 10
2' = 59	M = 6
TWR = 98	N = 32

Post-Test

Deux chiens, un chat, onze monsieur, des maisons, des arbres, du gaz, des trottoirs, le bureau de poste, un autobus, quatre madames, un bicyclette, un téléphone, un lion, un cloche, un montre, des rues, des fruits, des fleurs, des cheminées. C'est tout./2

T = 42	V = 1
2' = 42	M = 4
TWR = 42	N = 20

Picture Description Test of Subject K

Pre-Test

Un voiture, puis une maison, toutes sortes de choses, des arbres, où met les lettres, beaucoup de personnes,/^{2} un lion sur un image, un chien, un autobus, un bicyclette, un cloche, des pommes et des fleurs, des oranges, des boites, un porte, un gaz où on fait, beaucoup de fruits et des gâteaux, un chat, un autobus arrêté, un rue, [un acheter de gomme,] des choses pour voir la télévision, des lunettes, des cheminées, un ciel, toutes sortes de couleurs, un numéro 27, des personnes [avec des bags,] une personne [avec une cane,] une clôture, [un jacket] dans la porte.

T = 88	V = 3
2' = 18	M = 11
TWR = 84	N = 32

Post-Test

Porte, un chat, un bicyclette, un autobus, no. 27, auto, des fruits, des fleurs, des filles, des garçons, des maisons, un cloche, des cheminées, des fenêtres,/^{2} une cloche, un lion, office de poste, des antennes, des rues, une glissoire, un chien, des chiens, des érables, un arrêt d'autobus, un manteau, est'ce qu'on peut dire les couleurs? brun, vert, violet, rouge, jaune, des feuilles, noir, blanc, beige, beaucoup de signes, une lampe, [un driver d'autobus, meat,] un vieil homme, [du bread,] des pommes, des oranges, des tomates, un 25¢, [de poste, un basket, est-ce que j'ai dit office de poste? un bag,] des petits montagnes, [du meat, des sidewalk,] des érables, avec ça

dessus, [le sky, un grosse,] des magasins, un chapeau, [du hair,] sur les têtes, des cannes, des roues, sur l'autobus, et auto et bicyclette, [un sidewalk, des sidewalk, un bench, s'assoit] une porte avec la maison, [des oeils,] des bouches, des oreilles, [des noses, un sweeper, dirt, est-ce que j'ai dit de la grass,] une station de gaz, [un highway,] des portes, de magasins et de maisons, [un bumper] sur l'autobus et sur l'auto, [beaucoup de faces de personnes,] beaucoup beaucoup de personnes beaucoup de érables, [des straight et des bent] un vert bicyclette, un bleu et rouge autobus, un bleu auto, beaucoup de couleurs de maisons, bleu, un autre bleu auto [et une pink auto, des roofs,] des fenêtres, sur les portes des fenêtres, on peut voir quoi est dans le magasin, des bruns roues sur les bicyclettes, des blancs roues sur des autos, et des noirs roues sur des autos [des leaves] sur des érables, [des curtains] dans les fenêtres, des bleues portes et des portes ouvertes, des portes qui sont nouvelles et un vert porte, tous les feuilles sur les érables sont verts [et des wires] et des choses [pour holder les wires,] des cannes dans la fenêtre, [un jacket vert,] une toit, maison bleue, des toits de maisons bruns, des toits de maisons jaunes, des toits de maisons oranges, des toits de maisons violets, des toits de maisons rouges, une personne, un enfant sur une glissoire, c'est tout.

T = 271	V = 8
2' = 26	M = 54
TWR = 246	N = 98

Picture Description Test of Subject D

Pre-Test

Deux chiens, un chat, [un gas station,] un autobus, des fruits, des fleurs, des personnes, un téléphone, des maisons, [un playground,] un école, [une church,] des rues, une bicyclee, un monsieur qui ramasse les choses [avec un broom,] des signes, des montagnes, [hills,]/2 des arbres, [des verts grass,] des auto (automobile) un monsieur assis sur un grand chaise, [lights,] lumière [sur le sidewalk,] après un monsieur regarde [dans le chose window,] un monsieur [qui waiting for the bus,] autobus, [tickets like.] C'est tout, [un chimney, un power ici. I think that's it.]

T = 53	V = 3
2' = 31	M = 5
TWR = 52	N = 23

Post-Test

Quinze personnes, deux chiens, un chat, un autobus, une bicyclette, un auto, des arbres, dix arbres, [une gas station, un post office,] des maisons, [un telephone booth, une groceries un highway,] des montagnes, est-ce que j'ai dit ça? [un bakery, un fruit stand, et ça, candy house,]/2 madame, c'est seize personnes, [une meat shop,] une lumière, (est-ce que) je peux entendre ce que je parle? [une check booth.] Ça c'est tout. Puis une école, c'est dix-huit personnes, [puis une sign, une playground.] (Ça c'est tout.)

T = 55	V = 8
2' = 26	M = 8
TWR = 49	N = 14

which he attributed to the room in which we were, caused him to accelerate the description in order to leave that room as quickly as possible. He repeatedly checked the door since he did not believe the investigator to be the sole participant in this interview.

Case 4: Subject M and Subject P

Personality traits were one of the most influential factors in the performance of the subjects in the Picture Description Test. The rapport established between the investigator and the subject affected the quantity and quality of the spoken message during the interview. The recording of the conversation did not appear to affect the spontaneity of the subjects.

The following is an example of an extroverted child, Subject M, who demonstrated an unusual ability to cope with new situations as well as with strangers. This comment was made by her teacher, by a substitute teacher and also by a student teacher who was posted in her classroom for a period of six weeks. Her rendition of the total number of words spoken during the Picture Description Test, at the pre-test and at the post-test, 794 and 1,677 respectively, represent the highest total number of words utilized in the sample population. In contrast, Subject P, who could be considered a comparable subject, according to results tabulated on the oral cloze test, the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test and the cloze (silent reading) test scored much lower on the sub-tests of the Picture Description Test. Table V-1 shows the results of Subject M as compared to Subject P.

Their results are comparable on the first three tests but the score of the total number of words used in the Picture Description

Table V-1

Comparison of the Test Results of Subject M and Subject P

Variable	Subject M		Subject P	
	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
Cloze (oral)	22	--	22	--
PPVT	59	71	61	57
Cloze (silent reading)	24	25	20	23
PDT (Total)	794	1,677	151	101
PDT (2 min.)	95	101	65	40
PDT (TWR)	736	1,534	115	101
PDT (Verbs)	64	177	2	2
PDT (Modifiers)	53	178	6	1
PDT (Nouns)	175	392	51	47

Test present an interesting discrepancy which could be attributable to many factors. However, the personality of these two subjects offered a marked difference in their relationship with the investigator.

Subject M in her description at post-test time spent over 45 minutes describing the picture, including the recess period. At the end of the interview, the investigator apologized for extending the test into recess time at which time she quickly responded: "I don't like recess." Subject P exhibited a high anxiety level during her test.

The transcriptions of these two cases were not included because of the length of these. It will be noted on Table V-1 that Subject M gave 794 on her pre-test and 1,677 on her post-test.

The teacher reports and the children's reactions included in this chapter gave additional insight on the impact of a "read-aloud stories" program and on the quality of the performance of the children on the tests used to collect data. It was felt that in the analysis of the results the individuality of the students gets lost.

Chapter VI

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Summary

The purpose of this research was to measure the impact of a special literature program on the receptive and productive vocabulary as well as the reading ability of low language users and high language users of Grade 3 early total French immersion students. This study also attempted to verify the merits of two different methodologies for presenting a story: (1) the "lap-method" in which incidental vocabulary development takes place and (2) introducing key words in contextual situations prior to reading the stories aloud, thus promoting direct vocabulary learning.

The Design

This study was conducted with subjects from equivalent linguistic backgrounds, all in their fourth year of uninterrupted French immersion schooling. These subjects were classified as low language users and high language users according to results obtained on a cloze oral test given to them prior to the experimentation. The experimental group was comprised of four classes while the control group was selected from two classes.

These subjects were pre-tested with a variety of instruments prior to the "read-aloud stories" program, and post-tested following the

experiment, to measure their receptive and productive vocabulary as well as their reading ability.

The "read-aloud stories" program lasted 20 weeks during which time teachers of the experimental groups read stories to their students daily. This treatment was not given to the subjects of the control group.

To examine the impact of two methodologies used to present literature to students, different treatments were given to the experimental groups. Treatment 1 comprised of introducing key words prior to reading the stories while the subjects of the Treatment 2 group were exposed to the "lap-method."

Conclusions

The following hypotheses were posed to answer the questions stated earlier in Chapter I. For this study, these conclusions were reached.

H1. There will be a significant difference between the pre- and post-tests of the T_1 and T_2 experimental group when compared with the control group in:

a. their receptive vocabulary as measured by the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test.

b. their productive vocabulary as measured by a Picture Description Test devised specifically for this study.

c. their reading achievement as measured by a cloze silent reading test devised specifically for this study.

The results show that a "read-aloud stories" program is beneficial in the development of the receptive vocabulary and the reading ability of Grade 3 early total French immersion students. Their productive vocabulary did not appear to be enhanced by the insertion of this

literature program in their curriculum.

H2. The introduction of key words prior to reading stories aloud to children will cause more significant improvement than reading without clarifying or explaining key words before reading aloud to children in:

a. their receptive vocabulary as evidenced by the results of the pre- and post-tests of T_1 and T_2 groups.

b. their productive vocabulary as evidenced by the results of the pre- and post-tests of the T_1 and T_2 groups.

c. their reading achievement as evidenced by the results of the pre- and post-tests of the T_1 and T_2 groups.

It is clear from the findings that introducing key words prior to reading stories aloud is conducive to improving the reading ability of Grade 3 French immersion students. This particular treatment did not affect their receptive and productive vocabulary.

Implications

Among the implications of this research is the one that teachers, especially teachers of immersion programs, must be familiar with children's literature suitable to the age and the stage of language development of their students.

Besides enhancing the attitude towards reading, a "read-aloud stories" program inserted in the curriculum will greatly improve the listening skills of Grade 3 French immersion students. The further familiarization of the story concept as well as the deemphasis of the isolated word will increase the probability of spawning compound bilinguals as opposed to coordinate bilinguals. The students learning a second language will soon realize the context and the illustrations will assist them in understanding the message of the printed word.

Vocabulary must be taught in meaningful situations or in relation to other words grammatically or syntactically related to them. It is felt vocabulary and concept preparation do optimize the reading ability of students. Part of this preparation should involve assigning provocative questions before reading as well as afterward. Word lists and substitution drills should be avoided. Comprehending context and key ideas can be more important than rate of vocabulary introduction in any given test.

The choice of stories read aloud to Grade 3 French immersion students is critical. Ego-involvement and comprehension of concepts are important criteria in the selection of stories to be read to this population. The role of these factors is to stimulate motivation to read and to strengthen their language power. The visual component of stories was identified as an indispensable support to the clarification of meaning of the stories read. Visuals are known to lead to more accurate conceptualization. However, the strategies with which they are employed will largely determine their effectiveness. In fact, the dynamic, enthusiastic performance of the reader in a "read-aloud stories" program is crucial.

Valuable knowledge was provided about the research design used. Since listening and speaking should precede reading and writing, an added treatment could give additional merits to a "read-aloud stories" program. Oral discussion after hearing the stories could assist in improving their productive vocabulary.

Since growth in conceptualization is revealed in words, another way of assessing vocabulary could be through the qualitative analysis

of words used to express concepts. Individual experiences and responses are apparently too varied to allow an accurate quantitative assessment (Cohen, 1966). A Free Word Association Test could be used for this purpose.

If the qualitative assessment was deemed valuable, the Picture Description Test could be modified by using a variety of pictures more closely related to the themes of the books in the selected readings. This may be a more appropriate way of assessing gain in the productive vocabulary of the students.

The results of this study point to the need for curriculum planners to structure French immersion language programs with an emphasis on the strategy of reading aloud to children. Suggestions of suitable stories for French immersion programs as well as library resource personnel should be made available to the teachers. Serious consideration should also be given to the importance of library funding in school budgets. Needless to say, the teacher training programs should strongly suggest the students follow children's literature courses in their Bachelor of Education program.

Suggestions for Further Research

On the basis of the findings of the present study, research in the following areas would seem desirable:

1. There is need for further extension of the present study to measure the impact of a "read-aloud stories" program on the receptive and productive vocabulary, the reading ability, the attitudes toward reading, the amount of stories read voluntarily as well as their reading skills.

2. A similar study could be conducted with a larger sample, replicating the study but adding another treatment, that is, planned oral discussions of the stories after the readings. This treatment may cause a considerable gain of the productive language for the subjects.

3. The instruments used in this study could be refined so as to constitute standardized instruments for assessing the impact of reading aloud to students on their linguistic competence.

4. The total number of stories as well as the daily duration of this study could be extended.

5. A comparative study might be undertaken to determine the effect of a "read-aloud stories" program on children studying a second language other than French.

6. A more precise knowledge is needed of the earliest and latest ages at which introduction to regular story reading can be effective in helping children become readers. While there is good evidence that good readers have had pre-school exposure to books read to them in their native language, there is little known about the age level at which listening to stories could be a useful aid in language learning and reading, for second-language learners.

7. Consideration may be given to leaving the selection of the stores to the participating teachers or to the students involved in the study, rather than to the investigator.

8. In future research of this nature, it would be advisable to match the subjects on reading ability before the study.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Almy, M. C. Children's experiences prior to the first grade and success in beginning reading. New York: Teachers' College Bureau of Publications, 1949.

Anderson, R. C., & Ausubel, D. Readings in the psychology of cognition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.

Bailey, G. The use of a library resource program for improvement of language abilities of disadvantaged first grade pupils of an urban community. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Boston College, 1970.

Bain, B., & Yu, A. Cognitive consequences of raising children "one parent, one language": Alsace, Alberta, Hong Kong. Canadian Journal of Psychology, 1980, 34, 20-35.

Bever, T. G. The cognitive basis for linguistic structures. In J. R. Hayes (Ed.), Cognition and the development of language. New York: Wiley, 1970, 279-362.

Bloch, B. Outline of linguistic analysis. Baltimore: Linguistic Society of America, 1942.

Bloom, Lois. Language development. In L. Wardhough and R. Brown (eds.), A survey of applied linguistics. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1976.

Bossard, J. Family modes of expression. American Sociological Review, 1945, 10, 226-237.

Brown, Douglas. Principles of language learning and teaching. New York: Prentice Hall, 1980.

Brown, J. Reading aloud. Elementary English, 1973, 50, 635-636.

Brown, R. A first language: The early stages. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1973.

Bruck, M., Lambert, W., & Tucker, G. R. Bilingual schooling through the elementary grades. Language Learning, 1974, 24, 183-204.

Burroughs, M. The stimulation of verbal behavior in culturally disadvantaged three-year olds. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970.

Cancino, H., Rosansky, E. J., & Schumann, J. H. Testing hypothesis about second language acquisition: The capula and the negative in three subjects. Working Papers in Bilingualism, 1974, 3, 80-96.

Caputo, Natha. De quatre à quinze ans guide de lectures. Paris: L'Ecole et la Nation, 1967.

Carroll, J. Language development. Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 1960, 744-752.

Cazden, C. B. Language in early childhood and reading: A review for 1969-1970. Washington: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1970. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 043 869)

Chihara, T., Oller, J., Weaver, K., & Chauez-Oller, M. A. Are cloze items sensitive to discourse constraints. Language Learning, 1977, 27, 63-73.

Childers, Perry R. Concurrent validity of a group administered Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. The Journal of Educational Research, 1966, 60, 92-93.

Chomsky, C. Stages in language development and reading exposure. Harvard Educational Review, 1972, 42, 1-33.

Chomsky, Noam. A review of B. F. Skinner's Verbal Behavior. Language, 1965, 35, 26-58.

Church, J. Language and the discovery of reality. New York: Random House, 1962.

Cohen, Dorothy H. Effect of a special program in literature on the vocabulary and reading achievement of second grade children in special service schools. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, New York University, 1962. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 010 602)

Cook, Vivian. Comparison of language development in native children and foreign adults. IRAL, 1973, 11, 13-28.

Cook, Vivian. The analogy between first and second language learning. IRAL, 1969, 7, 207-216.

Czicko, G. Differences in first- and second-language reading: The use of syntactic, semantic and discourse constraints. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 1978, 34, 473-489.

Dale, P. S. Language development: Structure and function. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976.

Dulay, H., & Burt, M. Natural sequences in child second language acquisition. Language Learning, 1974, 24, 37-53.

Dulay, H., & Burt, M. A new perspective on the creative construction process in child language acquisition. Language Learning, 1974, 24, 253-278.

Dumas, G., Swain, M., & Selinker, L. L'apprentissage du français langue seconde en classe d'immersion dans un milieu torontois. In S. Carey (Ed.), Bilingualism, biculturalism and education. Edmonton: University of Alberta, 1974, 83-90.

Durkin, D. Children who read early. New York: Teachers' College Press, 1966.

Ervin-Tripp, Susan. Is second language like the first? TESOL Quarterly, 1974, 8, 111-127.

Ervin-Tripp, Susan. Structure and process in language acquisition. Monograph Series on Language and Linguistics, 1970, 23, 313-344.

Fearn, L. The oral model as a strategy in developmental reading instruction. Reading Teacher, 1971, 25, 205.

Fisher, J. S. Social influence of the choice of linguistic variant. Word, 1958, 14, 47-56.

Fletcher, J. E. A study of the relationship between ability to use context as an aid in reading and other verbal abilities. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Washington, 1959.

Foder, Eugene. The effect of the systematic reading of stories on the language development of culturally deprived children. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Cornell University, 1966.

Garthwaite, M. Stories to shorten the road. Elementary English, 1972, 49, 600-603.

Goodman, K. S. Reading: A psycholinguistic guessing game. Journal of the Reading Specialist, 1967, 6, 126-135.

Hakuta, K. Learning to speak a second language: What exactly does the child learn? In D. P. Dato (Ed.), Georgetown University round table on languages and linguistics. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 1975.

Hampton, Hilda Marie. Selected effects of reading aloud to students. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri—Columbia, 1972.

Hansen, H., & Hansen, R. Let's read to children. Instructor, 1973, 82(8), 59-70, 72-73.

Hansen-Bede, L. A child's creation of a second language. Working Papers on Bilingualism, 1975, 6, 103-126.

Hassenforder, J., & Patte, G. Apprendre la lecture. L'Education, 1973, 18, 28-33.

Hatch, E., Polin, P., & Part, S. Acoustic scanning and syntactic processing: Three experiments—first and second language learners. Journal of Reading Behavior, 1974, 6, 275-285.

Huus, H. Helping children turn to reading for information and enjoyment. 1967. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 011 833)

Jakobovits, Leon. Implications of recent psycholinguistic developments for the teaching of a second language. Language Learning, 1968, 18, 89-109.

Jenkinson, M. Ways of teaching. In R. Staiger (Ed.), The Teaching of reading. Paris: UNESCO, 1973.

Jenkinson, M. D. Selected processes and difficulties of reading comprehension. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1957.

Kenyeres, A., & Kenyeres, E. Comment une petite Hongroise de sept ans apprend le français. Archives de Psychologie, 1938, 26, 322-366.

Lambert, W. E., & Tucker, G. R. Bilingual education of children. Rawley: Newbury House Publishers, 1972.

Langer, S. Philosophy in a new key. Boston: Harvard University Press, 1957.

Leblanc, D., & Leblanc, Y. Recherche sur certains effets des lectures d'histoires faites en classe par les maîtres. Unpublished master's thesis, Université de Sherbrooke, Quebec, 1975.

Lemieux, Louise. Pleins feux sur la littérature de jeunesse au Canada. Montreal: Français Léméac, 1972.

Lenneberg, E. H. The biological foundations of language. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967.

Lentin, Laurence. Apprendre à parler à l'enfant de moins de 6 ans. Paris: Les Editions ESF, 1973.

Lyons, P. The effect of children's literature and oral discussion on the reading achievement of first and second grade children. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, 1972.

MacCorquodale, K. On Chomsky's review of Skinner's Verbal Behavior. Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behavior, 1970, 13, 83-99.

Macnamara, John. Comparison between first and second language learning. Working Papers on Bilingualism, 1975, 7, 71-94.

Macnamara, J., Feltin, M., Hew, M., & Klein, M. An analytic comparison of reading in two languages. Irish Journal of Education, 1968, 2, 41-53.

McCormick, Sandra. Should you read aloud to your children? Language Arts, 1977, 54, 139-143.

McLaughlin, B. Second-language learning in children. Psychological Bulletin, 1977, 84, 438-459.

McNeill, D. Developmental psycholinguist. In F. Smith and G. A. Millers (Eds.), The genesis of language: A psycholinguistic approach. Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T. Press, 1966.

Milon, J. The development of negation in English by a second language learner. TESOL Quarterly, 1974, 8, 137-143.

Natalicio, D. S., & Natalicio, L. F. S. A comparative study of English pluralization by native and non-native English speakers. Child Development, 1971, 42, 1302-1306.

Neisser, U. Cognitive psychology. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967.

Norris, R. C., Hattel, J. V., & Brooks, S. Comparability of Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test scores under group and individual administration. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1960, II, 87-91.

Ogden, C. K., & Richards, I. A. Thoughts, words and things. In J. DeCecco, The psychology of language, thought and instruction. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967.

Oller, J. W. Assessing competence in ESL reading. TESOL Quarterly, 1972, 6, 313-323.

Oller, John W. et al. The cloze technique and ESL proficiency. Language Learning, 1971, 21(2).

Omataso, O. Storytelling: A cherished cultural heritage in Nigeria. Language Arts, 1978, 55, 724-727.

Payne, P. A. Qualitative meaning in vocabulary. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Alberta, 1972.

Piaget, J. Réussir et comprendre. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1974.

Politzer, R. L. Developmental sentence scoring as a method of measuring second language acquisition. Modern Language Journal, 1974, 58, 245-250.

Politzer, R. L., & Ramirez, A. G. An error analysis of the spoken English of Mexican-American pupils in bilingual and monolingual schooling. Language Learning, 1973, 23, 39-62.

Porter, J. Effect of a program of reading aloud to middle grade children in the inner city. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1969.

Ravem, R. The development of wh-questions in first and second language learners. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), Error analysis: Perspectives on second-language acquisition. London: Longman, 1974.

Ravem, R. Language acquisition in a second language environment. IRAL, 1968, 6, 175-185.

Reich, Bonnie B. The influence of Cree language background on the perception of English consonant phonemes in first grade children. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Alberta, 1978.

Ruddell, Robert B. Language acquisition and the reading process. Paper presented at the International Reading Association Conference, Kansas City, 1969.

Ryan, E. B., & Semmel, M. I. Reading as a constructive language process. Reading Research Quarterly, 1969, 5, 59-83.

Sampson, G. R., & Richards, J. C. Language learner systems. Language Sciences, 1973(August), 18-25.

San Andres, M. M. The effect of an oral reading program on reading achievement, listening vocabulary and attitude toward reading of grade 5 children. Unpublished master's thesis, University of British Columbia, 1969.

Sapir, E. Communication. In J. DeCecco, The psychology of language, thought and instruction. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962.

Schmidt, W. Child development: The human, cultural and educational context. New York: Harper and Row, 1973.

Selinker, L. Interlanguage. International Review of Applied Linguistics, 1972, 10, 209-231.

Selinker, L. Language transfer. General Linguistics, 1969, 9, 67-92.

Sherman, Barry. Reading for meaning. Learning, The Magazine for Creative Teaching, 1979(November), 41-44.

Skinner, B. F. Verbal behavior. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957.

Slobin, D. I. Cognitive prerequisites for the development of grammar. In C. Ferguson and D. I. Slobin (Eds.), Studies of child language development. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973.

Slobin, D. Psycholinguistics. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1971.

Smith, Frank. Comment les enfants apprennent à lire. Montréal: France-Amérique, 1981.

Smith, Frank. Understanding reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971.

Stern, H. H. Perspectives on second language teaching. Toronto, Ontario: Institute for Studies in Education, 1970.

Swain, M. Child bilingual language learning and linguistic interdependence. In S. Carey (Ed.), Bilingualism, biculturalism and education. Edmonton: University of Alberta, 1974, 75-81.

Taylor, I. Acquiring vs. learning a second language. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 1978, 34, 455-472.

Tomatis, Alfred. L'oreille et la vie. Paris: Editions Laffont, 1977.

Tough, Joan. Children's use of language. Educational Review, 1973, 26, 166-179.

Touyarot, Charles. Lecture et conquête de la langue. Paris: Fernand Nathan, 1971.

Vygotsky, L. S. Thought and language. Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T. Press, 1962.

Wann, K., Dorn, M., & Liddle, E. Le développement intellectuel chez l'enfant. Montréal: Editions du Renouveau Pédagogique, 1973.

Weaver, W. W. Theoretical aspects of cloze procedure. 14th Yearbook of the National Reading Conference, 1965, 115-133.

Weeks, R. W. Effectiveness of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test with college students. Journal of Educational Research, 1963, II, 109-110.

Wode, H. Developmental principles in naturalistic L_1 acquisition. Arbeitspapiere zum Spracherwerb, No. 16, Department of English, Kiel University, 1976.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

DIRECTIVES GIVEN TO THE PARTICIPATING TEACHERS OF TREATMENT 1 AND TREATMENT 2

DIRECTIVES DONNEES AUX ENSEIGNANTS DU GROUPE EXPERIMENTAL T_1

Vous participerez à un programme de lecture à haute voix faite par l'enseignant qui veut mesurer l'impact de celui-ci sur le développement de vocabulaire et sur la performance de lecture des élèves. Votre tâche consistera de lire quotidiennement pendant dix minutes à votre classe, ces livres selectionnés par le chercheur. Cette lecture se fera préférablement au début de la journée. Avant chaque histoire, vous sensibiliserez vos élèves à l'histoire et vous introdurez les mots-clés de l'histoire. La sensibilisation et les mots-clés de chaque histoire seront fournis pour chaque histoire. Les suivants sont des exemples de ceux-ci.

(6 min.)

Lobel, Arnold, Porculus, L'Ecole des loisirs, Paris, 1971

Sensibilisation: Vous savez que les petits cochons (parfois appelés des gorets) aiment la boue. La fermière chez qui Porculus habitait était propre. Elle décidait de tout nettoyer sur la ferme même Porculus et sa maison, la porcherie. Mais Porculus mécontent essaye de trouver un autre trou de boue. Voici ses aventures.

Mots-clés:
- la boue, une flaque
- la porcherie
- la fermière
- propre - sale
- un marécage
- une libellule
- une grenouille
- une tortue
- un serpent
- un aspirateur
- le cochon (le porc, le goret)
- ciment
- un orage

(5 min.)

Kerr, Judith, Le grand jour de Dorothée, Editions des Deux Coqs d'Or, Paris, 1974.

Sensibilisation: Avez-vous déjà assisté à un mariage? La journée d'un mariage est toujours un grand jour. Il y a beaucoup de préparations: les toilettes, le gâteau, une réception. Est-ce qu'on amène nos chiens et nos chats au mariage? Pourquoi pas? Ecoutez Le grand jour de Dorothée—nous verrons pourquoi nos petits amis (nommer quelques animaux favoris de vos élèves) ne sont pas invités au mariage.

Mots-clés:
- un chien
- la chatte et ses chatons
- un poisson rouge
- un hamster
- une grenouille
- une souris
- avoir faim - avoir soif

Vous avez la liberté de choisir l'histoire à lire parmi ceux selectionnés pour vous. Voici quelques directives à suivre pour ce programme de littérature enfantine.

1. Amusez-vous en lisant l'histoire! Nous lisons aux enfants surtout pour leur plaisir et leur satisfaction. La séance de lecture devrait être détendue et agréable pour vous et pour les élèves. Evitez d'annuler cette activité à titre de punition pour une mauvaise conduite de la part des élèves.
2. Assurez-vous que chaque élève entend l'histoire et utilisez les techniques susceptibles à faciliter la compréhension de l'histoire.
   a. Lisez avec expression en accentuant le rythme, l'intonation et les effets sonores.
   b. Utilisez efficacement les illustrations de l'histoire. Assurez-vous que chaque enfant peut les voir pendant la lecture de l'histoire.

c. Présentez les mots-clés en employant une variété de techniques. Selectionnez celles qui sont plus convenables pour vos buts.

- discussion
- questions-réponse
- illustrations—images, acétates dessins au tableau etc.
- mime

Veuillez ne pas interrompre la lecture pour clarifier le sens des mots.

3. Familiarisez-vous bien avec l'histoire avant de la lire à haute voix.
4. Ne permettez pas aux élèves de lire les histoires indépendemment. Assurez vous que ces livres ne soient pas circulés dans la bibliothèque scolaire ou d'aucune façon disponibles aux élèves. Veuillez demandez à la bibliothécaire de retirer temporairement, les livres sélectionnés de la bibliothèque.

DIRECTIVES PRESENTEES AUX ENSEIGNANTS DE T_2

Les mêmes directives furent données aux enseignants du groupe expérimental T_2 qu'aux enseignants du groupe expérimental T_1, avec une modification au No. 2. Puisque ce groupe (T_2) ne présentait pas les mots-clés avant la lecture à haute voix, 2(c) fut éliminé de leurs directives.

APPENDIX B

LIST OF PRE-SELECTED STORIES READ TO THE SUBJECTS

Level	Author	Title	Publisher	Place of Publication	Year
A Single stories (up to 5 min.)	Brandenberg, Franz	Elizabeth la jalouse	Flammarion	Paris	1979
	Carle, Eric	La petite chenille qui faisait des trous	Fernand Nathan	Paris	1972
	Deletaille, Albertine	Blancheline	Les Albums du Père Castor, Flammarion	Paris	1968
	Deletaille, Albertine	Chat lune	"	Paris	1954
	Deletaille, Albertine	Joselito	"	Paris	1970
	Deletaille, Albertine	Le sapin à cacahuètes	"	Paris	1973
	Kerr, Judith	Le grand goûter de Monsieur Tigre	Editions des Deux Coqs d'Or	Paris	1974
	Kerr, Judith	Le grand jour de Dorothée	"	Paris	1974
	Kraus, Robert	Milton	L'école des Loisirs	Paris	1974
	Lionni, Léo	Alexandre et la souris mécanique	L'école des Loisirs	Paris	1969
	Lionni, Léo	Frédéric	"	Paris	1975
	Lionni, Léo	La maison la plus grande du monde	"	Paris	1971
	Lionni, Léo	Pilotin	"	Paris	1973

Level	Author	Title	Publisher	Place of Publication	Date
	Lionni, Léo	Un poisson est un poisson	L'école des Loisirs	Paris	1972
	Sendak, Maurice	Max et les maximonstres	"	Paris	1967
	Tallon, Robert	Manuella	"	Paris	1974
	Ungerer, Toni	Jean de la lune	"	Paris	1969
	Ungerer, Toni	L'escapade de Maya	Ed. des Deux Coqs d'Or	Vienne	1978
B Single stories (6-10 minutes)	Anderson, H. C.	La petite fille aux allumettes	Enfantimages, Gallimard	France	1978
	Bauman, Hans	Le voyage en ballon bleu	Editions Fleurus	Paris	1976
	Blanc, Martine	Timothée, le photographe	Fernand Nathan	Paris	1976
	Burmingham	Trubloff, la souris qui voulait jouer de la balalaïka	Flammarion	Paris	1967
	Buzias, Dominique	Globula, la planète des téléphones	L'école des Loisirs	Paris	1972
	Cone Bryant, Sara	Le chat trop gourmand et le perroquet	Fernand Nathan	Paris	1968
	Cone Bryant, Sara	Le petit chacal et le crocodile	"	Paris	1968

Level	Author	Title	Publisher	Place of Publication	Date
	Cone Bryant, Sara	Le petit lapin, la baleine et l'éléphant	Fernand Nathan	Paris	1968
	Cone Bryant, Sara	Les aventures de la petite souris	"	Paris	1968
	Decoin, D.	O'Contraire	Editions Laffont	Paris	1976
	Disney, Walt	Mickey, Gulliver	Editions Club du Livre, Random House	New York	1977
	Frère, M.	Le journal de Véronique	Editions Pierre Fisné	Paris	1967
	Henno, Jeannie	Fabien et la fleur bleue	Editions Granger Frères Limitée	Montréal	1976
	Kent, Jack	L'intrépide Madame Apolline	Editions des Deux Coqs d'Or	Paris	1974
	Lobel, Arnold	Porculus	L'école des Loisirs	Paris	1971
	Marceau, Marcel	L'histoire de Bip	L'école des Loisirs	Paris	1976
	Ungerer, Toni	Le chapeau volant	L'école des Loisirs	Paris	1971
	Ungerer, Toni	Le géant de Zéralda	L'école des Loisirs	Paris	1971
	Ungerer, Toni	La grosse bête de monsieur Racine	L'école des Loisirs	Paris	1972

Level	Author	Title	Publisher	Place of Publication	Date
	Velthuÿs, Max	Le gentil dragon rouge et les brigands	Fernand Nathan	Paris	1972
	Velthuÿs, Max	Le peintre et l'oiseau	Fernand Nathan	Paris	1977
	Wood, Joyce	Les drôles de chapeaux de grand-maman	Editions des Deux Coqs d'Or	Paris	1972
C Continuous Story (11-20 min.)	Benchley, N.	Arthur a disparu	L'école des Loisirs	Paris	1974
	Bodecker, N. M.	Miss Juliette et le hérissons fleuri	Editions des Deux Coqs d'Or	Paris	1974
	Bröger, A. G. & Kalow	Le merveilleux lit volant	Casterman	Paris	1977
	Bröger, A. G. & Kalow	Le voyage de Bruno	Casterman	Stuttgart	1978
	Dahl, Ronald	L'énorme crocodile	Gallimard	France	1978
	Disney, Walt	Micket et le haricot magique	Editions Club du Livre, Random House	New York	1977
	Foustil, G. & E. Gürtzig	Les trois Cécile et le petit Tut-tut	Editions la Farandole	Paris	
	Fix, Philippe et Réjanne	L'éléphant rose à pois d'or	Editions des Deux Coqs d'Or	Paris	1973

Level	Author	Title	Publisher	Place of Publication	Date
	Le Gween, M.	Julienne, la souris musicienne	Editions des Deux Coqs d'Or	Paris	1973
	Lewi-Benchirit	Un bon exemple de confiance en soi	Grolier Ltée	Canada	1980
	Lewi-Benchirit	Un bon exemple de soif de savoir	Grolier Ltée	Canada	1980
	Lindgren, Astrid	Connais-tu Fifi Brindacier?	Editions Chantecler	Paris	
	Lindgren, Astrid	La bicyclette de Julie	G.P. Rouge et Or	Paris	1979
	Lobel, Arnold	Le magicien des couleurs	L'école des Loisirs	Paris	1971
	Nickl, Peter & B. Schroeder	Ratatatam	L'école des Loisirs	Paris	1973
	Papas	L'âne qui voulait changer la vie	Editions des Deux Coqs d'Or	Paris	1973
	Pect, Biel	Le grand Abracadabra	Editions des Deux Coqs d'Or	Paris	1973
	Schroeder, Binette	Fleur de lupin	L'école des Loisirs	Paris	1970

Level	Author	Title	Publisher	Place of Publication	Date
D Continuous Story (More than 20 minutes)	Brisville, J. C.	Oleg, le léopard des neiges	Editions Grasset	Paris	1976
	Fulton, M. J.	Arthur Détective et les 3 mystères	Editions des Deux Coqs d'Or	Paris	1976
	Hardy, Régis	L'enfant et l'ordinateur	Flammarion	France	1976
		La grande menace de Zoltar	Editions des Deux Coqs d'Or	Paris	1979

APPENDIX C

SILENT READING CLOZE TEST (PILOT)

SILENT READING CLOZE TEST (PILOT TEST)

This test was administered to an identical population to determine the validity of the test. It was eliminated due to the level of difficulty.

Courte-Queue laissa un jour la moitié de sa queue dans la gueule du méchant chien Shipper.

Il l'avait poursuivie, attrapée par la _____. Il ne lâchait pas. Elle non _____. Elle l'avait traîné un bon bout _____ chemin, pendu à sa queue.

A _____ fin, la queue céda. La chatte _____ revint à la maison. Berthe lui _____ un petit pansement. La chatte guérit. _____ que faire d'un bout de queue _____ comme le doigt!

Courte-Queue n'avait _____ de quoi s'en faire un fouet _____ lequel frapper le plancher quand elle était fâchée. Elle n'en avait pas assez long pour s'envelopper les pattes lorsqu'elle restait assise dehors, au froid, à attendre, sur le perron, qu'on lui ouvre la porte.

Il ya bien longtemps, vivait une princesse qui s'appelait Blanche-Neige. Elle était très belle. Et, comme _____ les princesses, elle vivait dans un _____. Sa belle-mère, la Reine, vivait aussi _____ ce château. La Reine avait un _____ magique. Tous les matins, elle se _____ dans ce miroir et posait la _____ question: "Miroir, cher miroir, qui est _____ plus belle du pays"?

Le miroir _____ répondait toujours la même chose: "Oh, _____, vous êtes la plus belle de _____."

Mais un jour le miroir fit une réponse différente: "Blanche-Neige est la plus belle du pays," dit-il.

APPENDIX D

DIRECTIVES GIVEN TO THE SUBJECTS FOR THE CLOZE TESTS

DIRECTIVES DONNEES AUX SUJETS POUR LES EPREUVES DE TEXTES MUTILES

Voici les directives données aux sujets par le chercheur pour les épreuves de textes mutilés (oral et lecture silencieuse).

A. Textes mutilés oraux

Je vais te lire des histoires dans lesquelles il manque des mots. Je vais lire une histoire à la fois, indiquant les trous par un léger coup sur le bureau. Pendant une deuxième lecture, tu vas essayer de découvrir le mot qui manque pour chaque espace. Nous procéderons phrase par phrase.

B. Textes mutilés de lecture silencieuse

Vous avez devant vous, une histoire avec des mots qui manquent. Chaque trou indique qu'il y a un mot qui manque. Essayez de découvrir quel mot manque dans chaque tiret et écrivez-le.

1. Lisez toute l'histoire du début jusqu'à la fin, afin de bien saisir le sens de l'histoire.

2. Relisez avec soin en remplissant chaque tiret avec un mot. Si vous ne savez pas le mot pour un tiret, essayez le prochain et revenez-y plus tard.

3. Tous les tirets sont de la même longueur. La longueur du tiret n'est pas un indice de la longueur du mot. L'orthographe des mots ne sera pas considérée alors si vous n'êtes pas certains de l'épellation d'un mot, écrivez-le comme vous l'entendez. Si vous voulez changer un mot effacez-le ou rayez-le. Ecrivez aussi proprement que possible.

4. Relisez l'histoire après que vous l'aurez compléteé, afin de vérifier vos réponses.

Avez-vous des questions?

Commencez!

APPENDIX E

ORAL CLOZE TEST

ORAL CLOZE TEST

Oral cloze test, devised by the investigator, administered prior to the "read-aloud stories" program, to determine the high and low language users.

I. C'est l'anniversaire de Denis. Maman prépare une fête pour Denis 1._____ 4 heures. Tous ses amis sont 2._____. Il y a des garçons et 3._____ filles. Maman prépare un gâteau au 4._____, décoré de glaçage bleu et de 5._____. Denis aide à maman à décore 6._____ maison avec des ballons.

Les enfants 7._____ avec leurs cadeaux. Caroline apporte un 8._____ de BINGO et Michel lui donne un 9._____ et Dominique lui offre un camion 10._____. Le cadeau de son petit frère 11._____ un gros chien blanc.

Les petits 12._____ jouent tandis que maman prépare le 13._____. Quelle belle fête.

II. Michel est un gentil petit garçon. Il a six ans. Il va 1._____ l'école. Il écoute son papa et 2._____ maman. Aujourd'hui, c'est samedi. Michel ne 3._____ pas à l'école. Il joue avec 4._____ amis, Marc et Luc. Construisons une 5._____ pour le chien. Marc va chercher 6._____ marteau, une scie, des clous. Il 7._____ à ses amis de l'aider à 8._____ la maison. Ses bons amis travaillent 9._____. Ils construisent une jolie maison pour 10._____ chien.

III. Un soir, papa et maman préparent le souper dans la cuisine. Daniel lit un livre et Mélanie 1._____ avec le chien. Quelqu'un sonne à 2._____ porte. Une surprise! C'est grand-maman et 3._____ qui arrivent. Daniel et Mélanie 4._____ leurs grand-parents. Daniel court chercher la 5._____ et Mélanie place les assiettes. Le 6._____ aboie: il fait peur à grand-maman. 7._____ saute sur la chaise. Grand-papa 8._____. On fait sortir le chien par la porte.

APPENDIX F

POSSIBLE ANSWERS FOR ORAL CLOZE TEST

POSSIBLE ANSWERS FOR ORAL CLOZE TEST

I. C'est l'anniversaire de Denis. Maman prépare une fête pour Denis 1. (à) 4 heures. Tour ses amis sont 2. (à la fete, venus, arrivés, là, ici, à l'école). Il y a des garçons et 3. (des) filles. Maman prépare un gâteau au 4. (chocolat), décoré de glaçage bleu et de 5. (glaçage orange, fleurs). Denis aide à maman à décorer 6. (la, sa) maison avec des ballons.

Les enfants 7. (jouent, viennent, arrivent) avec leurs cadeaux. Caroline apporte un 8. (jeu) de BINGO et Michel lui donne un 9. (livre) et Dominique lui offre un camion 10. (de bois, rouge). Le cadeau de son petit frère 11. (c'est, est, était) un gros chien blanc.

Les petits 12. (garçons, enfants, amis) jouent tandis que maman prépare le 13. (souper, gâteau, repas, jeu). Quelle belle fête!

II. Michel est un gentil petit garçon. Il a six ans. Il va 1. (à) l'école. Il écoute son papa et 2. (sa) maman. Aujourd'hui, c'est samedi. Michel ne 3. (va) pas à l'école. Il joue avec 4. (les, des, ses) amis, Marc et Luc. Construisons une 5. (niche, maison) pour le chien. Marc va chercher 6. (ses, un, son, des, les, ses) marteau, une scie, des clous. Il 7. (dit, demande) à ses amis de l'aider à 8. (peinturer, faire, construire, nettoyer) la maison. Ses bons amis travaillent 9. (bien, fort, vite, ici, sur la maison, avec lui, aussi, toujours). Ils construisent une jolie maison pour 10. (le, son, un) chien.

III. Un soir, papa et maman préparent le souper dans la cuisine. Daniel lit un livre et Mélanie 1. (joue) avec le chien. Quelqu'un sonne à 2. (la) porte. Une surprise! C'est grand-maman et 3. (papa, grand-papa) qui arrivent. Daniel et Mélanie 4. (aiment, invitent, embrassent, regardent) leurs grand-parents. Daniel court chercher la 5. (cueillière, soupe, chaise) et Mélanie place les assiettes. Le 6. (chien) aboie: il fait peur à grand-maman. 7. (Elle, Grand-maman, Il) saute sur la chaise. Grand-papa 8. (se fâche, se lève, rit, crit, saute, pousse le chien, joue, parle, court). On fait sortir le chien par la porte.

APPENDIX G

SILENT READING CLOZE TEST

SILENT READING CLOZE TEST

Test, devised by the investigator, administered by the investigator as a pre- and post-test.

I. Un Jour de Pluie

Il pleut encore. Brigitte revient de l'école. Audjourd'hui elle _____ faire un gâteau avec sa mère. _____ arrive à la maison. Sa maman _____ couchée dans son lit.

Sa maman _____ à Brigitte qu'elle ne peut pas _____ un gâteau avec elle. Tu peux _____ des gâteaux chez le boulanger.

Brigitte _____. Elle commence un gâteau toute seule. _____ mesure la farine, le sucre et _____ lait. Elle mélange le gâteau et _____ met au four.

Sa maman est _____ que Brigitte peut faire un gâteau comme une grande fille. Quelle belle surprise.

II. Une Nouvelle Maison

Pierre aime sa nouvelle maison. Sa chambre est la plus grande _____ la plus jolie. Il a un _____ dans lequel il peut jouer. Il _____ aussi ses nouveaux voisins. Malheureusement, pas _____ seul garçon de son âge habite _____ de lui. Un jour, un tracteur _____ et commence à creuser, un gros _____. Tout à coup, un petit garçon _____ dit: "Cette machine est à creuser _____ cave de ma maison." "Ta maison _____ devant la mienne. Nous allons pouvoir _____ ensemble tour les jours," dit Pierre. "Je suis bien content," dit le nouveau voisin.

III. Le Chat qui Voulait Aller à l'Ecole

Felix était un gros chat gris. Il aime jouer avec Denis et _____ petite soeur, Rose. Félix veut aller _____ l'école.

Un jour, _____ va à l'école avec Denis et Rose. Il _____ dans la cour d'école avec eux. _____ monte les escaliers jusqu'à la salle _____ classe. Madame Nicole lui ferme la _____ au nez. Félix repart la queue _____. Danile retourne à la maison avec _____ chat.

APPENDIX H

POSSIBLE ANSWERS FOR THE SILENT READING CLOZE TEST

POSSIBLE ANSWERS FOR THE SILENT READING CLOZE TEST

I. Un Jour de Pluie

Il pleut encore. Brigitte revient de l'école. Aujourd'hui elle (veut, va) faire un gâteau avec sa mère. (Elle, Brigitte) arrive à la maison. Sa maman (est) couchée dans son lit.

Sa maman (dit) à Brigitte qu'elle ne peut pas (fère, faire, fair) un gâteau avec elle. Tu peux (acheter, regarder, commander) des gâteaux chez le boulanger.

Brigitte (pleure, rit, cour, pense, sourit). Elle commence un gâteau toute seule. (Elle) mesure la farine, le sucre et (du, le) lait. Elle mélange le gâteau et (le) met au four.

Sa maman est (surprise, contente, contante, fière, fier, sur) que Brigitte peut faire un gâteau comme une grande fille. Quelle belle surprise!

II. Une Nouvelle Maison

Pierre aime sa nouvelle maison. Sa chambre est la plus grande (et) la plus jolie. Il a un (jouet, jeu, coin) dans lequel il peut jouer. Il (aime, a) aussis ses nouveaux voisins. Malheureusement, pas (un) seul garçon de son âge habite (à coté, près, prêt) de lui.

Un jour, un tracteur (vien (vein), vent, arrive) et commence à creuser un gros (trou). Tout à coup, un petit garcon (a, à, lui, me, se) dit: "Cette machine est à creuser (la) cave de ma maison."

"Ta maison (est, et) devant la mienne. Nous allons pouvoir (jouer, être) ensemble tous les jours," dit Pierre.

"Je suis bien content," dit le nouveau voisin.

III. Le Chat qui Voulait Aller à l'Ecole

Félix était un gros chat gris. Il aime jouer avec Denis et (sa) petite soeur, Rose. Félix veut aller (à) l'école.

Un jour, (Félix, il) va à l'école avec Denis et Rose. Il (arrive, joue, va, entre, est, marche, court) dans la cour d'école avec eux. (Il) monte les escaliers jusqu'à la salle (de) Madame Nicole lui ferme la (porte, port) au nez. Félix repart la queue (en bas, basse). Daniel retourne à la maison avec (le, son, un) chat.

APPENDIX I

PEABODY PICTURE VOCABULARY TEST

PEABODY PICTURE VOCABULARY TEST

Directions given by the investigator prior the administration of the pre- and post-test of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Form A).

Start at 0 and end at 100.

Equipment: • overhead projector

• a transparency of each PPVT plate used.

An example of these plates is included.

Directions (given in French)

J'ai des images à vous montrer. Je veux savoir si vous pouvez trouver la bonne image lorsque je prononce un mot.

Regardez: Voir example A.

Il y a 4 images sur cette page. Chaque image est numérotée 1, 2, 3, 4. Je vais dire un mot et je veux que vous me disiez le numéro de l'image qui nous donne la meilleure signification de 1. auto, 2. vache, 3. bébé, 4. fille.

Encerclez la bonne réponse.

Prenez votre règle pour suivre comme ceci.

APPENDIX J

EXAMPLES OF PLATES AND CORRECT RESPONSES FOR
THE PEABODY PICTURE VOCABULARY TEST

EXAMPLE OF PLATES OF PEABODY PICTURE
VOCABULARY TEST

EXAMPLE A

1

2

3

PEABODY PICTURE VOCABULARY TEST

FORMULE A

Gravure	Clef	Mot Clef	Gravure	Clef	Mot Clef
1	4	auto	29	2	kangourou
2	3	vache	30	3	accident
3	1	bébé	31	3	nid
4	2	fille	32	2	ambulance
5	1	ballon	33	1	enveloppe
6	3	bloc	34	2	cueillir
7	2	clown	35	1	insigne
8	1	clef	36	3	lunettes
9	4	boîte de conserve	37	2	paon
10	2	poulet	38	3	reine
11	4	souffler	39	4	carrosse
12	2	ventilateur	40	1	fouet
13	1	creuser	41	4	filet
14	1	jupe	42	4	tache de rousseur
15	4	attraper	43	3	aigle
16	1	tambour	44	2	torsion
17	3	feuille	45	4	astiquer
18	4	attacher	46	2	cadran
19	1	clôture	47	2	bailler
20	2	bâton	48	2	tomber
21	4	abeille	49	1	signal
22	3	buisson	50	1	capsule
23	1	verser	51	4	sous-marin
24	1	coudre	52	4	thermos
25	2	cornet	53	3	projecteur
26	2	maîtresse	54	4	groupe
27	3	construire	55	1	ronger
28	3	flèche	56	1	transport

Gravure	Clef	Mot Clef
57	1	comptoir
58	2	cérémonie
59	3	gousse
60	2	élan d'amérique
61	3	diriger
62	4	entonnoir
63	2	délice
64	4	chef
65	2	communication
66	4	archer
67	1	stade
68	1	excaver
69	4	assaillir
70	1	acrobatie
71	1	meringue
72	3	appareil
73	4	chimiste
74	3	arctique
75	4	destruction
76	3	porteur
77	2	côte
78	4	hisser
79	1	lamentation
80	2	ressort
81	3	kayak
82	2	sentinelle
83	4	sillon
84	1	poutre
85	3	fragment
86	2	planer
87	3	deuil
88	4	escarpement

Gravure	Clef	Mot Clef
89	2	crise
90	1	submerger
91	3	descendre
92	2	pouf
93	1	canine
94	1	sonder
95	4	allonger
96	3	évaluer
97	4	confiner
98	4	précipitation
99	1	pignon
100	1	amphibie
101	3	gradué
102	2	hiéroglyphe
103	1	orateur
104	3	cascade
105	4	illumination
106	1	nuque
107	2	généologiste
108	2	gravé en relief
109	4	mercantile
110	2	encombré
111	4	inciter
112	3	concentrique
113	3	vitreux
114	2	incarcérer
115	2	machette
116	4	abandonnée
117	1	corniche
118	3	craintif
119	1	entraver
120	2	tartan

Gravure	Clef	Mot Clef
121	3	trotteur
122	4	obélisque
123	2	ellipse
124	2	entomologie
125	4	arrogant
126	2	lucarne
127	2	conifère
128	4	consternation
129	3	obèse
130	4	gantelet
131	1	inclément
132	1	coupole
133	2	oblitérer
134	3	astiquer
135	1	bovin
136	4	éminence
137	3	légumineuse
138	4	sénile
139	2	délétère
140	4	raser
141	2	ambulant
142	1	cravate
143	2	embrocher
144	4	marsupial
145	3	prédateur
146	1	incertitude
147	2	imbiber
148	3	homoncule
149	4	cryptogame
150	3	suspendu

APPENDIX K

PICTURE DESCRIPTION TEST

PICTURE DESCRIPTION TEST

I. Picture: The Village, P.C. 407 Child Education, 1972.

This large visual (18" x 24") used for the pre- and post-test, consisted of a brightly colored scene of activities commonly seen in a village. For example: an old man sitting on a park bench, the butcher sweeping the sidewalk in front of his shop, a park, a school, a church, etc.

II. Materials: Tape recorder

Picture

III. Administrator's directives (given in French):

1. Expliquez la présence du magnétophone et son rôle. "C'est un magnétophone. Tout ce que nous disons est enregistré sur un ruban." Faire écouter l'enfant.
2. "Dis-moi tout ce que tu vois dans cette image."
3. Enrégistrez la conversation.
   Si l'enfant est gêné, encouragez-le en posant encore la question. "Vois-tu autre chose?"

APPENDIX L

UNADJUSTED RESULTS OBTAINED BY EACH GROUP
FOR THE CLOZE (ORAL) TEST

Unadjusted Results Obtained by Each Group for the Cloze (Oral) Test Given Prior to the "Read-Aloud Stories" Program to Determine the High and Low Language Users

T_1		T_2		Control	
Subject	Pre	Subject	Pre	Subject	Pre
1	25	18	25	33	18
2	21	19	15	34	16
3	18	20	15	35	21
4	14	21	18	36	23
5	19	22	20	37	20
6	16	23	18	38	26
7	20	24	23	39	25
8	19	25	21	40	22
9	18	26	21	41	24
10	16	27	17	42	22
11	18	28	16	43	17
12	20	29	18	44	24
13	24	30	16	45	25
14	21	31	14	46	18
15	18	32	18	47	20
16	17			48	17
17	17			49	17
				50	21
				51	16
				52	13

APPENDIX M

RESULTS OF PRE- AND POST-TESTS

The Pre-Test and Post-Test Unadjusted Results Obtained by Each Group for the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test

T_1			T_2			Control		
Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post
1	67	84	18	59	64	33	72	65
2	64	41	19	58	63	34	71	70
3	62	90	20	55	96	35	68	77
4	56	82	21	54	61	36	68	73
5	56	58	22	51	58	37	67	61
6	55	85	23	51	69	38	64	58
7	54	66	24	50	69	39	63	55
8	53	64	25	49	64	40	61	57
9	53	49	26	48	48	41	60	54
10	51	73	27	47	55	42	59	71
11	51	60	28	44	49	43	57	64
12	49	75	29	43	63	44	55	55
13	48	65	30	42	64	45	53	69
14	45	65	31	41	57	46	53	10
15	45	69	32	17	57	47	53	59
16	26	65				48	49	70
17	5	15				49	48	58
						50	47	65
						51	37	15
						52	29	51
$\bar{x}$	49.41	64.88		47.27	61.20		56.65	57.85

The Pre-Test and Post-Test Unadjusted Results Obtained by Each Group for the Cloze (Silent Reading) Test

T_1			T_2			Control		
Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post
1	19	25	18	22	21	33	18	19
2	20	24	19	11	14	34	21	24
3	22	22	20	4	7	35	22	25
4	16	18	21	14	18	36	20	24
5	6	20	22	13	16	37	22	21
6	18	22	23	18	19	38	10	12
7	20	25	24	24	23	39	14	22
8	11	18	25	16	23	40	20	23
9	14	21	26	18	19	41	25	24
10	9	21	27	18	18	42	24	25
11	18	21	28	11	15	43	16	20
12	12	18	29	13	10	44	24	26
13	24	26	30	11	10	45	18	25
14	16	18	31	12	12	46	8	15
15	16	25	32	14	17	47	11	13
16	15	21				48	17	21
17	17	24				49	13	14
						50	13	21
						51	12	20
						52	3	4
$\bar{x}$	16.47	21.88		14.60	16.53		16.65	19.90

The Pre-Test and Post-Test Unadjusted Results Obtained by Each Group for the Picture Description Test (Total Number of Words)

T_1			T_2			Control		
Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post
1	58	81	18	195	207	33	102	107
2	48	272	19	80	430	34	104	82
3	43	64	20	53	57	35	100	241
4	29	100	21	141	412	36	128	109
5	109	74	22	168	582	37	39	43
6	82	322	23	91	61	38	96	246
7	75	102	24	61	31	39	66	87
8	116	42	25	107	301	40	151	101
9	130	191	26	49	70	41	345	110
10	71	51	27	334	886	42	794	1677
11	98	172	28	22	35	43	32	49
12	185	147	29	55	199	44	130	141
13	71	79	30	130	122	45	38	35
14	36	51	31	19	48	46	31	42
15	71	146	32	80	50	47	241	429
16	72	62				48	59	125
17	83	96				49	81	44
						50	79	201
						51	188	174
						52	70	57
$\bar{x}$	81.00	120.53		105.67	232.73		143.70	205.00

The Pre-Test and Post-Test Unadjusted Results Obtained by Each Group for the Picture Description Test (Number of Words Spoken During the First Two Minutes of the Test)

T_1			T_2			Control		
Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post
1	27		18	35	41	33	39	44
2	32	42	19	67	102	34	56	42
3	28	28	20	52	57	35	74	51
4	29	60	21	36	81	36	38	45
5	55	74	22	41	63	37	39	37
6	47	70	23	71	50	38	51	29
7	65	36	24	41	27	39	39	41
8	56	42	25	18	26	40	65	40
9	62	37	26	49	51	41	132	41
10	41	44	27	91	72	42	95	101
11	62	44	28	13	35	43	7	20
12	54	49	29	40	46	44	79	60
13	49	44	30	86	35	45	31	23
14	36	24	31	19	48	46	25	16
15	46	66	32	77	50	47	73	62
16	42	34				48	59	60
17	28	24				49	49	20
						50	26	57
						51	42	41
						52	33	28
$\bar{x}$	44.65	44.82		49.07	52.27		53.85	42.90

The Pre-Test and Post-Test Unadjusted Results Obtained by Each Group for the Picture Description Test (Total Number of Words without Repetition)

T_1			T_2			Control		
Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post
1	58	79	18	115	175	33	100	107
2	46	272	19	77	356	34	100	82
3	43	61	20	63	55	35	61	185
4	22	100	21	141	398	36	128	105
5	46	70	22	165	470	37	39	41
6	77	297	23	82	61	38	82	246
7	65	102	24	44	31	39	66	87
8	106	42	25	106	269	40	115	101
9	62	185	26	49	49	41	281	110
10	61	48	27	263	715	42	736	1534
11	85	148	28	21	33	43	29	49
12	137	119	29	50	197	44	88	107
13	65	79	30	118	106	45	38	35
14	21	49	31	19	42	46	31	42
15	71	140	32	60	50	47	145	354
16	76	62				48	51	106
17	35	96				49	71	44
						50	79	197
						51	183	168
						52	63	57
$\bar{x}$	63.29	114.65		90.93	200.47		122.35	187.85

The Pre-Test and Post-Test Unadjusted Results Obtained by Each Group for the Picture Description Test (Total Number of Verbs)

T_1			T_2			Control		
Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post
1	5	6	18	2	5	33	3	1
2	2	20	19	5	34	34	6	3
3	1	1	20	2	1	35	10	15
4	1	9	21	11	34	36	8	8
5	5	4	22	9	44	37	0	1
6	3	31	23	4	4	38	5	10
7	3	6	24	5	1	39	1	1
8	4	1	25	3	3	40	2	2
9	12	15	26	1	23	41	60	3
10	6	4	27	13	65	42	64	177
11	5	16	28	0	1	43	0	3
12	12	7	29	1	4	44	4	11
13	2	4	30	13	12	45	2	1
14	4	17	32	0	2	46	0	0
15	4	17	32	3	0	47	8	16
16	4	1				48	4	12
17	2	1				49	2	1
						50	2	5
						51	21	16
						52	2	9
$\bar{x}$	4.29	8.71		4.80	15.53		10.20	14.75

The Pre-Test and Post-Test Unadjusted Results Obtained by Each Group for the Picture Description Test (Total Number of Modifiers)

T_1			T_2			Control		
Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post
1	2	0	18	7	7	33	3	3
2	1	12	19	2	19	34	4	1
3	3	2	20	8	2	35	1	9
4	3	0	21	6	22	36	6	5
5	1	1	22	3	41	37	1	1
6	3	23	23	5	2	38	3	14
7	2	2	24	3	1	39	3	0
8	2	2	25	6	41	40	6	1
9	3	16	26	1	2	41	12	5
10	1	2	27	16	56	42	53	178
11	0	2	28	0	1	43	1	2
12	6	2	29	4	11	44	7	3
13	4	3	30	2	4	45	2	1
14	2	1	31	1	3	46	1	6
15	4	16	32	1	1	47	6	52
16	2	3				48	6	2
17	0	0				49	6	1
						50	2	1
						51	2	6
						52	3	5
$\bar{x}$	2.29	5.12		4.33	14.20		6.40	14.50

The Pre-Test and Post-Test Unadjusted Results Obtained by Each Group for the Picture Description Test (Total Number of Nouns)

T_1			T_2			Control		
Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post	Subject	Pre	Post
1	23	32	18	49	72	33	32	34
2	13	80	19	19	22	34	32	34
3	17	31	20	8	2	35	29	61
4	12	34	21	6	22	36	48	35
5	23	32	22	3	41	37	19	21
6	32	91	23	5	2	38	30	91
7	25	41	24	3	1	39	26	38
8	29	20	25	6	41	40	51	47
9	34	53	26	1	2	41	70	98
10	23	16	27	16	56	42	175	392
11	29	45	28	0	1	43	13	21
12	44	47	29	4	11	44	30	29
13	26	32	30	2	4	45	12	15
14	13	15	31	1	3	46	15	21
15	24	17	32	1	1	47	54	115
16	26	32				48	13	35
17	26	45				49	29	18
						50	32	80
						51	52	55
						52	23	14
$\bar{x}$	24.94	38.53		31.40	62.73		39.70	60.85

APPENDIX N

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire was given after the completion of the research project, to get feedback from the participating teachers.

1. Comment décririez-vous la réaction de vos élèves à la lecture faite en classe par vous?

   i) très enthousiaste
   ii) enthousiaste
   iii) indifférente

2. a) Quelles histoires ont été préférées dans votre classe?

   b) Quels types d'histoires leur a davantage plu?

3. Quelle longueur de livre ont-ils préférée?

   i) très court
   ii) très long
   iii) Aucune différence quant à la longueur

4. Quelle est votre réaction face à la sensibilisation présentée avant chaque histoire?

   i) appropriée
   ii) nécessaire
   iii) inutile

5. a) Est-ce que la sélection de mots-clés était appropriée?

   b) Aviez-vous suffisamment d'idées ou de moyens pour les présenter?

   c) Comment présentiez-vous les mots-clés?

6. Quant aux histoires continues, auriez-vous apprécié davantage de directives pour déterminer les segments à lire chaque jour?

7. Estimez-vous cette expérience valable? Très valable?

8. D'après vous, quels sont les points forts de l'expérience?

9. D'après vous, quels sont les points faibles de l'expérience?

10. Quelles suggestions aimeriez-vous faire?

11. Commentaires généraux:

APPENDIX O

GROUP MEANS OF THE DIFFERENCES OF SCORES FOR THE HIGH LANGUAGE AND THE LOW LANGUAGE USERS FOR ALL INSTRUMENTS

GROUP MEANS OF THE DIFFERENCES OF SCORES FOR THE HIGH LANGUAGE AND LOW LANGUAGE USERS FOR THE TWO EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS AND THE CONTROL GROUP FOR ALL INSTRUMENTS

Level	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test			
HLU*			
T_1	8	9.86	15.19
T_2	5	9.20	7.69
Control	12	3.00	9.27
LLU*			
T_1	9	20.44	13.12
T_2	10	16.30	10.82
Control	8	-1.5	22.16
For Entire Sample	52	9.54	15.14
Cloze Silent Reading Test			
HLU			
T_1	8	5.25	4.03
T_2	5	1.80	3.35
Control	12	3.17	3.10
LLU			
T_1	9	5.56	3.71
T_2	10	2.00	1.83
Control	8	3.38	2.33
For Entire Sample	52	3.58	3.26
Picture Description Test			
Total no. of words			
HLU			
T_1	8	18.75	90.28
T_2	5	122.20	184.29
Control	12	101.08	271.08
LLU			
T_1	9	58.00	77.60
T_2	10	129.50	199.04
Control	8	1.63	31.60
For Entire Sample	52	73.16	173.36

*HLU = high language users; LLU = low language users

Level	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
No. of words spoken in 2 minutes			
HLU			
T_1	8	-2.38	16.63
T_2	5	4.80	12.93
Control	12	-12.92	29.41
LLU			
T_1	9	2.44	18.95
T_2	10	2.40	31.11
Control	8	-8.00	10.70
For Entire Sample	52	-3.23	22.90
No. of words without repetition			
HLU			
T_1	8	33.50	84.42
T_2	5	103.00	132.59
Control	12	106.92	251.19
LLU			
T_1	9	67.22	72.53
T_2	10	112.80	167.02
Control	8	3.38	26.23
For Entire Sample	52	73.58	153.26
No. of verbs			
HLU			
T_1	8	2.25	7.01
T_2	5	11.20	16.63
Control	12	7.00	37.66
LLU			
T_1	9	6.33	10.00
T_2	10	10.50	18.25
Control	8	.88	4.70
For Entire Sample	52	6.29	20.62

Level	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
No. of modifiers			
HLU			
T_1	8	.38	4.50
T_2	5	14.40	20.23
Control	12	14.00	37.75
LLU			
T_1	9	5.00	7.94
T_2	10	7.60	13.62
Control	8	-.75	3.11
For Entire Sample	52	6.88	20.50
No. of nouns			
HLU			
T_1	8	11.25	23.78
T_2	5	31.00	33.00
Control	12	33.00	64.40
LLU			
T_1	9	15.67	19.57
T_2	10	31.50	42.88
Control	8	3.38	10.31
For Entire Sample	52	21.62	39.88